BRUCE'S SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

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A SCHOOL HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

BY

PHILIP ALEXANDER BRUCE

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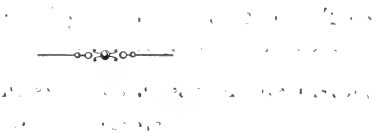

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W. P. I

PREFACE

I HAVE, in the following pages, related the early history of colonial Virginia somewhat more fully than I have done that of any one of the other colonies, because (1) Virginia was founded many years before the oldest of them; (2) during the time Virginia remained the only English community in America, the problem as to whether English colonization could be carried out in that region was finally solved. Previous to 1620, the year in which Massachusetts, the next English colony to be founded, was first settled permanently, the right of private property in the soil had been granted in Virginia, slaves had been brought in, an extensive trade with England carried on, a judicial system put in force, a college projected, and the first American legislature had met. These were events of extraordinary importance under the special circumstances, and really form as much a part of the history of the other English colonies as of Virginia.

In relating the events of early colonial history I have grouped the colonies together according to their economic and social character, as well as according to their local situation. Thus the account of Virginia has been followed up with an account of the other Southern colonies, in which the general conditions differed but little. For the same reason the New England colonies have next been treated in a separate

group, though, if the chronological method were observed, Massachusetts would come immediately after Virginia. So with the Middle colonies in their turn. In this way, a clearer idea is obtained of the development of the various groups of colonies along the lines peculiar to themselves.

Of all the wars in which the United States has been engaged, the great contest between North and South is the one which, for many years, will be studied with the most interest. In the light of this fact, I hope it will not seem inappropriate to have narrated it, even in a short history of this kind, at much greater proportionate length than any other four years of our national annals, however crowded with military events.

In the treatment of the principal questions that have divided the people of the Southern and Northern States, the point of view of this work is Southern, but I have aimed to present this side in a temperate and moderate spirit, the only spirit becoming in a history of our reunited country.

PHILIP ALEXANDER BRUCE.

Clarkton, Halifax County, Va.

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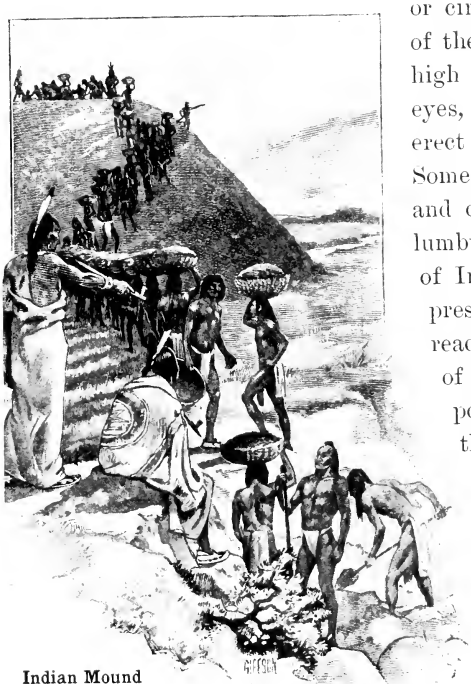
HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

INTRODUCTION

The Indians

1. Appearance, Origin, and Tribal Division. When Columbus discovered America he found a people of the color of copper or cinnamon in possession of the country. They had high cheek bones, black eyes, coarse black hair, and erect and sinewy figures. Some were gigantic in size, and others, dwarfish. Columbus gave them the name of Indians, under the impression that he had reached the Indies, a part of Asia. It is now supposed by some that their remote ancestors crossed over to America from Asia by way of Bering Strait, or drifted in open junks from the coasts of China and Japan.



Indian Mound Builders

2. *The Mound Builders.* It was formerly thought that the tribes occupying North America at

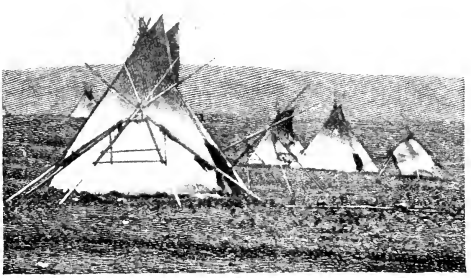
the time of the Discovery had supplanted a much older race, known as the Mound Builders. When the interior of the continent was first explored there were found at many places in the valleys of the Mississippi and its tributaries, earthworks, often of the most extraordinary length, height, and breadth; some circular in form; others, shaped like fortifications, pyramids, or altars; others in the form of birds, quadrupeds, or serpents. These mounds contained flint arrow heads, stone implements and tools, jugs, pipes, and urns. The most recent investigation tends to prove that the Mound Builders were not a branch of the Aztecs of Mexico, or the Peruvians, as was once conjectured, but the ancestors of the modern North American Indians.

3. *The country east of the Mississippi* was occupied chiefly by the Iroquois (ir ō kwoi′), the Algonquins (al gon′-kins), and the Masko′ki. Among the *western* tribes were the Dacotahs, the Comanches (co man′cheez), and the Apaches (ah pah′cheez). The land of the Algonquins spread from Hudson Bay southward as far as the Carolinas, and westward to the Mississippi River. The Iroquois were seated in the midst of this area; they inhabited the region now covered by the central part of the State of New York; and also claimed as far as the mouth of the Susquehanna and the extreme southern shores of Lakes Huron and Erie. A branch of the Iroquois known as the Tuscaro′ras, had thrust themselves into

Indian Dress

the Carolinas; the Cherokees', of Tennessee, also were of kindred blood. The Maskoki roamed over the southern part of the territory east of the Mississippi River.

4. **Indian Economy.** *Dress.* In winter, the Indian usually wore a loose dress of deerskin, which ended in the moccasin for the feet. In summer, his only garment generally was a breech clout about the waist. The chief, when he went abroad or sat in council, sometimes wore a mantle of squirrel, raccoon, or beaver skins. The mantles of the women were made of the skins of wild ducks, geese, swans, and turkeys, with the feathers unplucked. Members of both sexes would sometimes smear their bodies with oil, and then spread thickly over the whole surface the soft down of blue birds, red birds, and white herons. The Indian warrior wore, in the topknot on his head, a plume of eagle feathers. streaked his forehead and cheeks with red paint, and his naked breast and stomach with black and yellow. When on the warpath, he carried his tomahawk and his bow and arrow.



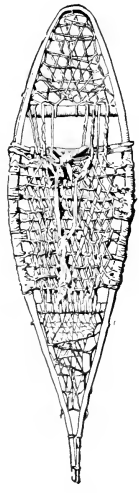
Indian Wigwams

5. *The houses* of the North American Indians were, as a rule, made by tying together the tops of poles arranged in a circle, and then drawing over this simple framework a covering of bark and skins. Mats were the only furniture. A village usually consisted of a dozen or more wigwams. The more substantial bark houses of the Iroquois were sometimes as

much as two hundred and fifty feet long and thirty feet wide, and held as many as thirty families.

6. *Means of Living.* The Indians obtained a living by rudely cultivating the soil and by hunting and fishing. They planted grains of corn in their fields at intervals of a few feet, and when the stalks had sprung up to a considerable height they planted between them the seed of beans, pumpkins, and gourds. Near the wigwams were small patches of tobacco. The methods of catching fish consisted of angling, spearing, netting, and trapping. The principal instrument in hunting was the bow and arrow, but the knife and spear also were in general use.

7. **Intellect and Character.** *Indian Skill.* The stages of progress of the human race may be broadly divided into savagery, barbarism, and civilization. The mass of the North American Indians were in the lowest state of barbarism. Their highest skill consisted in building a long house, or wigwam; in making a snowshoe, a moccasin, a birch canoe, a willow basket, or pieces of rude pottery. They had no beast of burden except the dog, which was used by a few tribes for that purpose, no vehicle, no domestic fowls, no horned cattle. Their nearest approach to painting was rude tracing or carving. The Cherokees alone used marks that faintly resembled our modern writing.



Snowshoe

8. *Tomahawk, Stake, and Gantlet.* The Indian, however, was not without some poetical feeling. His conversation was often marked by fine imagery, and he had extraordinary power as an orator. By nature he was proud and haughty, cruel and revengeful. It was his delight to tomahawk and scalp his enemies; or burn them at the stake; or force them to

run the gantlet of knives and hatchets, sticks and clubs. He never fought in the open, but lay in wait for his foes in ambuscade, or surprised them before dawn while asleep. He could suffer any torture without betraying pain, and endure any hardship with stoical indifference.

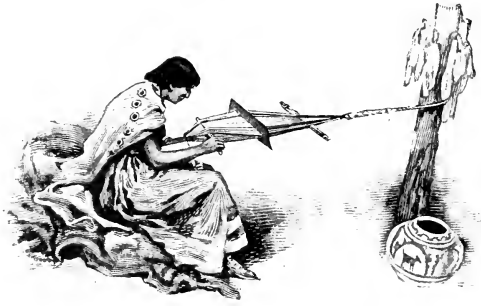
9. General Customs. *Family and Government.* As a rule, the Indian had but one wife and few children. The families living together belonged to the same clan, which bore the name of an animal — wolf, bear, hawk, eagle, turtle — known as the totem. A chief was at the head of each tribe, but its affairs were governed by a council. When the council met, a lighted pipe was handed around, and each member took a puff. When all had spoken, the chief announced the decision. The Iroquois had formed a great Confederacy under the control of a council of chiefs. The Powhatans', who belonged to the Algonquin family, were united under a ruler known as the Powhatan.

10. *Religion.* The Indian looked forward to a happy hunting ground after death, where, in the company of his dog, he would spend his days in the chase, or in eating or sleeping. All the great forces of nature — the sun, the river, the wind, the lightning — were associated in his mind with evil beings, which could be mollified only by a valuable offering or sacrifice. The Indian doctor was held in great reverence, as it was supposed that he could, by his knowledge of magic, cure all diseases, regulate the weather, and drive away the malignant spirits.

Indian Pueblo

11. Semicivilized Indians. *The most advanced tribe* in the present area of the United States were the Pueblo (pwĕb'lo) Indians of New Mexico and Arizona. They irrigated their fields and built houses of sun-dried bricks. The city of Mexico, the seat of the Aztec empire, was filled with houses built of stone and covered with gypsum. The palace of Montezuma (mon tee zoo'mah) was so large that it spread over many acres. In all parts of the city were lofty temples, spacious markets, and beautiful gardens. The Pueblo women were noted for their skill in weaving.

12. *The Peruvians* were equally civilized. They had an excellent system of roads, reservoirs, and aqueducts. They used plows and harrows; and employed the llama as a beast of burden. They manufactured cotton and woolen cloths, and also worked the precious metals. Unlike the Mexicans, their religious services were not tarnished by human sacrifice.



Pueblo Woman weaving a Belt

ANALYSIS OF INTRODUCTION

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    2. Origin.
    3. Distribution.
    4. Economy.
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       2. Houses.
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    5. Intellect and Character.
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    1. Pueblos in North America.
    2. Aztecs in Central America.
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    4. Evidences of their Enlightenment.

PERIOD I. DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

Norse Voyages

13. Greenland Colony. Many hundred years before the birth of Columbus, the boldest and hardiest seamen of Europe were the Norsemen, who inhabited Sweden and Norway and (after 874) Iceland. In their large open row and sail boats they explored the waters of the ocean for long distances. As early as 986 a colony had been founded in Greenland by Eric the Red, and long before Columbus's first voyage several settlements had been made there.

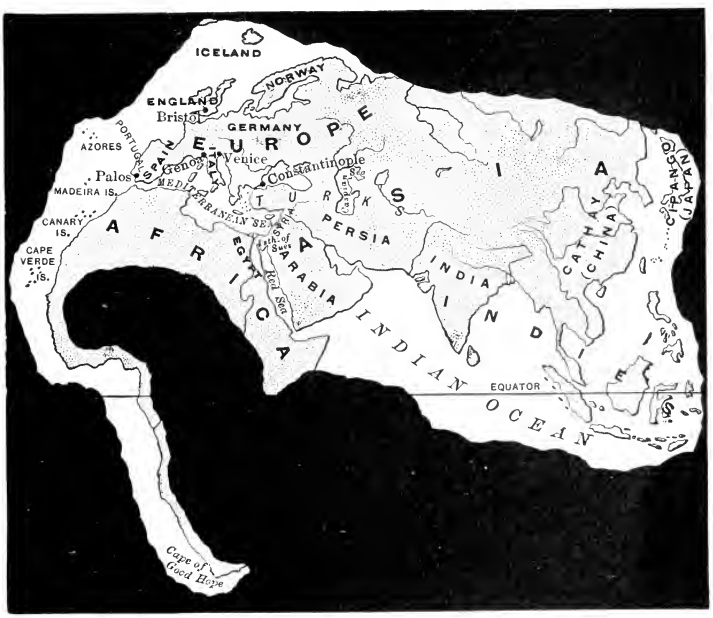
14. Bjarni, Leif, and Thorfinn. According to the rude traditions of the Norsemen, preserved in their national poems, a seaman of their race, one Bjarni (bee ar'nee), driven southwest from Greenland by a violent storm, reached an unknown coast which must have been that of North America. In his track soon followed Leif (lēf), the son of Eric (1000 A.D.), who first reached a country remarkable for its great rocks (Newfoundland); next, a country covered with lofty trees (Nova Scotia); and, finally, a point (perhaps on the coast of New England) where vines grew luxuriantly, which he named Vinland. In later times a friend of Leif, Thorfinn, tried to found a permanent colony on the same spot, but this was prevented by the bleakness and harshness of the winters, and the hostility of the Indians.[1]

[1] For a long time, the old mill at Newport was supposed to be the work of Norsemen, but it is now known to have been built, in 1675, by a governor of the province. The picture writing on the Dighton rock, in Massachusetts,

Gradually all recollection of the discoveries of Bjarni and Leif, and the colony of Thorfinn, seems to have passed from the minds of the Norsemen.

Portuguese Explorations

15. Route to the East. The most urgent question, from a commercial point of view, in the Europe of the fifteenth century (1401–1500), was how to shorten the journey to the East,



The known World in 1492

in order to bring in, at the least expense, the precious commodities of the Oriental countries. There was now an increas-

also at one time thought to be of Norse origin, has been proved to be an inscription of Algonquin Indians; it does not differ in character from many thousand other inscriptions in the United States made by the same tribes.

ing demand for these commodities, owing to the growth of European wealth and luxury. In this trade Genoa and Venice had become rich and powerful. Transportation overland, by way of Syria or Egypt, was not only slow, on account of the great distance, but also unsafe, on account of the numerous bands of fierce marauders. So serious were these obstacles, that, early in the fifteenth century, Portuguese navigators sought to find out how far Africa stretched away toward the south, in the hope that a vessel might sail around it, and thus reach India. It was not until 1471, however, that they crossed the equator; and not until 1486 that they rounded the Cape of Good Hope. The ancient philosopher Ptolemy's idea (150 A.D.), that Africa spread unbroken southward, was thus proved to be incorrect.

16. Theory of the Earth's Roundness. The length of the African voyage, and the capture by the Turks of the countries through which the eastern caravans passed, made more urgent the need for opening up a new route to the East. From the oldest times many people had been of the opinion that the earth is round. Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Strabo, and the Arabian philosophers had taught it. Toscanel'li (1397–1482), a famous Italian astronomer, and Martin Behaim (bā'hīm), a German navigator of the fifteenth century, held the same belief.

17. Prince Henry of Portugal. If this doctrine was correct, a ship sailing westward would sooner or later arrive in the East. The use of the compass and astrolabe now made it easy for the navigator to find his way over the trackless ocean. Prince Henry (1394–1460), who founded a naval college, where the most authentic geographical knowledge of those times was taught, and who was anxious to test the theory of the roundness of the earth, in steering off the Portuguese shores sighted the beautiful Azores, and this greatly increased the general interest in the supposed western waterway to Asia.

Columbus and his Discoveries

18. Columbus's Great Voyage. *His Faith.* The notion that Asia could be reached by sailing westward had taken complete possession of the mind of Christopher Columbus. He is supposed to have been born in Genoa sometime between 1436 and 1446; and doubtless his imagination had been fired by the wonderful tales of the gorgeous wealth of the Orient, told by Marco Polo, who had traveled in the East. At an early age Columbus became a sailor and took part in the Portuguese explorations. His belief in the western route was confirmed by reports of strange plants and trees, and of bodies with yellow skins, like those of Asiatics, thrown by the waves on the sands of the islands off the coast of Africa. It has been said that he consulted Toscanelli (§ 16), and received from him a chart representing the Atlantic to be an open sea as far as Japan. The distance to Japan was supposed by Columbus to be only three thousand miles.[1]

Christopher Columbus

19. *Columbus goes to Spain.* Columbus sought aid first of Genoa, and then of the king of Portugal. The king, taking Columbus's charts, secretly dispatched a vessel westward from Cape Verde Islands, but the pilot soon came back discouraged. Columbus now sent his brother Bartholomew to England to interest Henry VII in his plans, while he himself traveled to Spain to beg men and ships of the monarchs of the united kingdoms of Aragon and Castile, Ferdinand and

[1] Columbus was not influenced entirely by ambition in his plans for discovering the New East. He was very religious, and believed that he had a mission from Heaven "to carry the true faith to the uttermost parts of the earth."

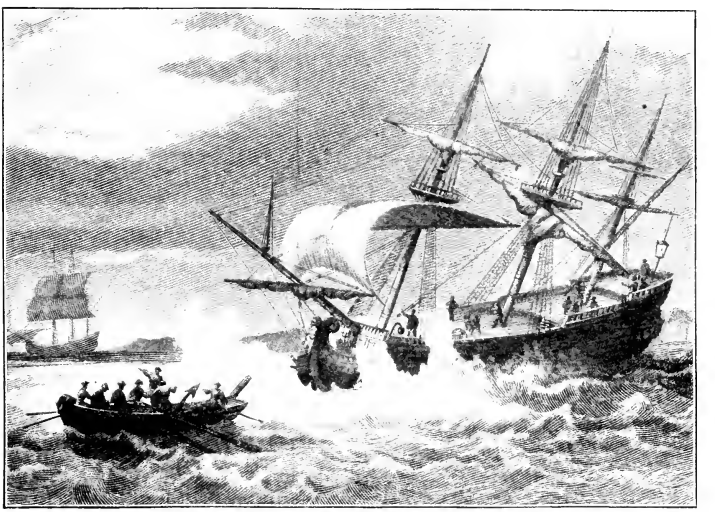
Isabella. His proposal to find the East by sailing westward was submitted to a body of learned men, and rejected as impracticable, and also contrary to the teachings of the Bible. He soon became an object of ridicule. If the earth was round, people exclaimed with derision, men arriving on the other side would walk with their heads downward instead of upward in the air. Sailing westward would be like sailing downhill. How could the ships sail back uphill again?

20. *Columbus secures Aid.* Worn out, after many years of waiting, Columbus set out for France, but was stopped by an order from Isabella to return. She now declared that she would pledge her jewels if necessary to raise the money he would want. The greater part, however, was in the end obtained from the royal treasurer. Two brothers named Pinzon (peen thōn′) gave a vessel, and agreed to go with the expedition. Owing to the supposed perils of the westward voyage, it was found difficult to secure the necessary number of sailors.

21. *The Western Ocean.* In August, 1492, the fleet of Columbus, consisting of the *Santa Maria* (sahn′tah mah ree′ah), the *Pinta* (peen′tah), and the *Niña* (neen′yah), set sail. After a detention of thirty days at the Canary Islands in order to repair the *Pinta*, Columbus boldly steered straight into the western ocean.

22. *The sailors* soon became alarmed by the thought that they were sailing toward waters where all the laws of nature would be the opposite of what they had known. This fear seemed to be confirmed by the failure of the compass to point in the same northerly direction as formerly, and by the steadiness with which the wind blew westward. How could the ships return in the teeth of such a wind? For a time, Columbus was able to quiet their apprehensions, and the ships went on their course. After a while the sailors began to murmur

again, and even threatened to throw Columbus overboard. He promised them that he would yield to their desire to return, unless land were reached before the end of three days.



Ships of Columbus

23. *The Landing.* Soon flocks of birds were seen flying overhead, and trunks of trees floating in the sea. A branch of thorn covered with berries and a staff, plainly carved by a man's hand, were picked up. On the night of October 11 Columbus saw a light rising and falling, as if some one held a torch in his hand as he walked. At two o'clock in the morning of the 12th, a loud cry of "Land, land," rang out from the *Pinta*. In a few hours Columbus and his followers, all gorgeously dressed, went on shore, knelt, and returned thanks to God, while groups of natives, who supposed the ships to be great white-winged birds, looked on in wonder and awe. The copper color of the savages confirmed the voyagers in their

belief that they had reached Japan or China, though, after a careful search, they could find no spices, precious stones, or metals.

Landing of Columbus

24. *Cuba and Haiti discovered.* Giving the name "San Salvador" to the newly discovered island, now known to be one of the Bahama group (map, p. 29), Columbus set sail again. He soon discovered Cuba, and thinking it the mainland of Asia, sent a deputation to a great Indian chief in the interior, whom he supposed to be the King of Tartary. Not long afterwards he sighted Hai'ti, which he named Hispaniola (his pan yo'la). Here he built a small fort out of the timbers of the *Santa Maria*, which had been wrecked, and leaving in it a garrison, turned his prow homeward. A great storm coming on, he wrote an account of his voyage and, encasing it in wax, put it in a barrel which he threw overboard, in the hope that should he perish, the record would drift safely to the shores of Europe and be picked up and read.

25. *Return to Spain.* The ships were separated, but rode out the storm, and in time arrived safely at Palos. There

Columbus and his men were greeted with the utmost enthusiasm, for they had long been given up as lost. His progress toward the court was a splendid triumph. The king and queen received him with every mark of honor. He presented them with tropical fruits and plants, ornaments of gold, and objects of curious device; but what excited most interest was the Indians he brought with him from the lands he had discovered.

26. Subsequent Voyages. *Second Voyage.* In 1493 Columbus set out on a second voyage, with a fleet of seventeen ships and a company of 1200 persons. On his arrival at Haiti he found that the fort he had built (§ 24) had been destroyed and its garrison killed or driven off. A town having been laid off, a search for the precious metals and costly products of the East was made, only to end in the bitterest disappointment. The voyagers, very much disheartened, soon began to perish from hunger and disease. Having discovered Jamaica, Columbus returned to Spain.

27. *Third Voyage.* In 1498 Columbus sailed for a short distance along the northern coast of South America, without being aware that it was the continent of a new world. Making his way to the town his brother Bartholomew had founded in the island of Haiti, he became mixed up in violent disputes with the colonists, and at last was sent back to Spain in chains. He was acquitted of every charge, but was not again fully restored to royal favor.

28. *Fourth Voyage.* Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese navigator, in 1497–1499 sailed to India by rounding the Cape of Good Hope and crossing the Indian Ocean. There he obtained a cargo of spices and perfumes, silks and satins, ivory, oranges, and precious stones, and returned to Portugal. Deeply moved by the success of this expedition, Columbus set out, in 1502, on a fourth voyage, in the hope of finding an open

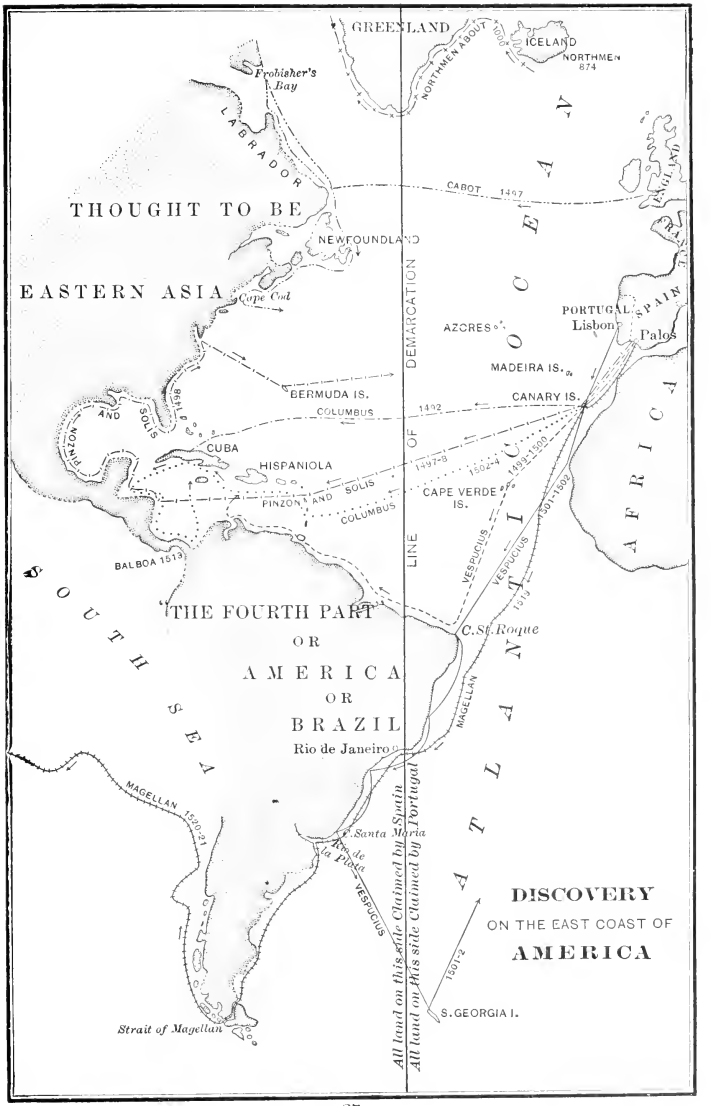
waterway to India west of Cuba. He came upon the coast of Central America, and sailed as far south as the narrow isthmus of Panama, where the natives told him of a great sea lying beyond the range of mountains in sight, but Columbus was unable to visit it.

29. *Columbus's Death.* He went back to Spain in 1504, fell into neglect, and, in 1506, died in great poverty, still supposing he had reached the coast of Asia, and unaware that he had discovered a new world. His body was first buried in Spain. In 1536 it was carried to the West Indies. In 1898 the bones of Columbus were returned to the land of Ferdinand and Isabella.

Early English Explorations

30. **John Cabot.** The most important of all the early explorers from the point of view of the history of the United States, were John and Sebastian Cab'ot. John was born in Italy, but lived in England. In 1497 he was authorized by Henry VII, who had declined to aid Columbus (§ 19), to set out on a voyage to find an open waterway to China by sailing westward. After a voyage to the west he came in sight of land, probably Labrador, which, however, he supposed to be an outlying part of Asia (map, p. 25). This was fourteen months before Columbus first saw the continent. On this discovery the English claim to North America was afterwards based. In the light of subsequent events, Cabot's voyage is second in historical importance only to the first voyage of Columbus.

Sebastian Cabot


GREENLAND
ICELAND
NORTHMEN 874
NORTHMEN ABOUT 1000
Frobisher's Bay
LABRADOR
CABOT 1497
ENGLAND
FRANCE
THOUGHT TO BE
NEWFOUNDLAND
EASTERN ASIA
Cape Cod
AZORES
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
SPAIN
Palos
MADEIRA IS.
BERMUDA IS.
CANARY IS.
COLUMBUS 1492
PINZON AND SOLIS 1508
CUBA
HISPANIOLA
1497-8
1502-4
1499-1500
1501-1500
CAPE VERDE IS.
FINZON AND SOLIS
COLUMBUS
VESPUCIUS
VESPUCIUS 1499
BALBOA 1513
THE FOURTH PART
OR
AMERICA
OR
BRAZIL
Rio de Janeiro
C. St. Roque
MAGELLAN
MAGELLAN 1520-21
S. Santa Maria de la Plata
VESPUCIUS
Strait of Magellan
DEMARCATION LINE OF
All land on this side Claimed by Spain
All land on this side Claimed by Portugal
1501-2
S. GEORGIA I.
DISCOVERY
ON THE EAST COAST OF
AMERICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH SEA
AFRICA

31. Second Voyage of the Cabots. In the following year John Cabot and his son Sebastian, a youth of twenty-one, are thought to have made a second voyage to the same coast, in the hope of reaching China and Japan. The ships are supposed to have sailed as far south as Cape Cod or perhaps Hatteras before they returned. No record of these voyages was kept.[1]

Spanish and Portuguese Explorations

32. Line of Demarcation. *Portugal and Spain* agreed that the heathen countries which should be found west of a meridian drawn 370 leagues west of Cape Verde Islands should belong to Spain; the heathen lands east, to Portugal. This meridian was called the "Line of Demarcation" (map, p. 25), and it divided all the heathen lands in the world between these two nations; but as we shall soon see, the English and the French treated the arrangement with contempt.

33. *Cabral's Voyage.* When Gama got back from India (§ 28), his success stirred up such enthusiasm in Portugal that a new fleet was at once fitted out under command of Cabral (kah brahl'). In sailing south toward the Cape of Good Hope, the ships were driven so far westward that they came upon the coast of Brazil (April, 1500). Cabral took possession of it in the name of the king of Portugal, as it was found to be east of the Line of Demarcation (§ 32).

34. The Name America. *Voyage to Brazil.* In order to continue the explorations of Cabral, the king, in 1501, sent out three vessels under the pilotage of Americus Vespucius (vĕs-pu'shĭ ŭs), a merchant of Florence, who was learned in astronomy and navigation, and had just returned from a voyage to

[1] It is thought by some historians that Sebastian Cabot went with his father on his first voyage. Others give Sebastian credit for all the discoveries of both voyages.

the west (1499–1500).[1] The fleet hugged the shores of Brazil and Uruguay as far as the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, and then, having sailed southeast until the ocean was blocked by great masses of ice, made their way back to Lisbon.

35. *Americus Vespucius.* The coast skirted by Vespucius was so long that it plainly belonged to a continent, the existence of which had not been suspected. It was a new world. The islands off the coast of North America, discovered by Columbus, were still thought to be large islands lying off the coast of Asia. Vespucius wrote an account of his American voyages, and this coming to the hands of a German geographer, he suggested, in a treatise, that the new continent should be called "America," in honor of Vespucius. The name soon found its way to the maps, and was also given to North America, when its connection with South America finally became known.

Americus Vespucius

36. The Pacific Ocean. *Nuñez de Balboa.* While wandering in the forests on the Isthmus of Panama, in 1513, Vasco Nuñez de Balboa (noon'yāth dā bahl bō'a) was told by the Indians of a great sea lying on the other side of the mountains (§ 28). Climbing to the top of a peak, Balboa beheld the waters of the Pacific glittering in the sunshine far below. Descending to the water's edge, he waded far out, and unfurling the banner of Castile, proclaimed, in a loud voice, that he took possession of all the regions lying on those seas, in the name of his king. He gave the new ocean the name of the South Sea.

37. *Magellan,* a native of Portugal, in the service of Spain, made his way, in 1520, into a narrow strait in South

[1] It is believed by some that the first voyage of Vespucius to the west was in 1497 under Pinzon and So'lis.

America, and passing through it, crossed the great ocean, which he called the "Pacific," as the sea was so calm. On reaching the Philippines, he was murdered by the natives. He was succeeded by Cano, who, though Magellan's former fleet of five vessels had been reduced to one, safely doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and thus returned to Spain. This was the first time the globe had been sailed around.

38. Florida and Mexico. *Juan Ponce de Leon* (hoo ahn' pōn'thā dā la ōn'), a friend and companion of Columbus, and governor of Porto Rico, made, in 1513, a voyage to Florida, at this time thought to be an island off the coast of Asia. It was reported to be rich in gold and silver, and also to have a fountain whose waters would restore youth. Ponce de Leon came in sight of land on Easter Sunday, and he therefore gave the region the name of Florida, from the Spanish name for Easter, *Pascua Florida.* In a second expedition, an effort to plant a colony failed, and Ponce de Leon was mortally wounded. This was the first attempt to found a European settlement on the mainland within the present boundaries of the United States.

Ponce de Leon

39. The Atlantic Coast. *Alvarez de Pineda* [ahl'vah reth dā pee nā'da], in 1519, in exploring the coast from Panama to Florida, is thought to have entered the mouth of the Mississippi. He found many Indian villages on either bank, and noticed with eagerness that the savages wore gold trinkets in their ears and noses.

40. *Conquest of Mexico.* While off the coast of Yucatan, a Spanish captain, whose vessel had been sent out to capture slaves for the Cuban plantations, heard that there

were opulent cities in the interior. In 1519 Hernando Cor'tez landed with a small force on the shores of Mexico, and marching boldly inward, by treachery, courage, and superior weapons, overcame the multitude of the enemy. He found the country abounding in gold and silver, and the city of Mexico he reported to be more beautiful than any city in Spain.

41. *Vasquez d'Ayllon* (vahs'kĕth dile yōn'), in 1520, sent out from Haiti an expedition to explore the coast north of

Spanish Explorations in North America, to 1600

Florida. The vessels are thought to have gone as far as the Chesapeake Bay. They brought away a large number of Indian slaves for the Spanish mines, but one of the ships sank and most of the slaves in the other perished. The glowing accounts which the sailors gave of the country visited induced Ayllon, in 1526, to equip a second expedition and

to accompany it himself. Many women and negro slaves went along, for it was Ayllon's intention to found a colony. A settlement was made somewhere in eastern Virginia, but in a short time starvation and disease set in, the Indians became hostile, and the colony was finally destroyed.

42. *Esteban Gomez.* In 1525 Esteban Gomez (es tā'bahn go'meth) sailed along the Atlantic coast as far as Labrador, but as he found no gold or silver, and no route to India, his voyage attracted little notice.

43. Expeditions Inland. *Panfilo de Narvaez* (pahn'fee lo dā nahr vah āth'), who had received a grant of Florida, explored that country, in 1528, with an army of four hundred men, in the hope of finding gold. Wandering about in the swamps and forests, the soldiers soon began to perish, either from the effects of disease or the attacks of Indians. Only a small band survived to reach the shores of the Gulf. They at once built boats with saws, axes, and nails, made of the iron of their crossbows, stirrups, and spears, while ropes were made from the tails and manes of the horses.

44. *Cabeza de Vaca.* Five boats were built, but they were so frail that two were soon overwhelmed by the waves, and it was with difficulty that the few persons in the remainder reached the coast of Texas. All were killed, or remained prisoners of the Indians, except Alva Cabeza de Vaca (ca bā'tha dā vah'kah), two soldiers, and a negro, who, making their escape, passed through southern Arkansas and northern Texas, and finally reached the Spanish settlements on the Pacific coast of Mexico (1536).

45. *The West Explored.* Excited by the stories of the countless wild cattle and vast region which Cabeza de Vaca and his companions had seen, Mendoza (men dō'tha), viceroy of Mexico, sent Brother Marcos, in 1539, to search for the

"Seven Cities."[1] So glowing were the accounts which Marcos gave on his return, that Mendoza dispatched Francisco Vasquez Coronado with an army to take possession of the Seven Cities of Cibola[1] (see'bo la). Clad in shining armor, and attended by a brilliant retinue of mounted men, Coronado rode some distance ahead of the main body, but the only cities he saw were a few Indian towns built of sun-dried brick. After two years spent in a fruitless search, in which he wandered as far as Kansas, Coronado returned to Mexico.

46. *Hernando de Soto,* a former companion of Pizarro (pe-zahr'ro), who conquered Peru in South America, set out from Cuba in 1539, with an army of six hundred men, for the exploration of Florida and the country beyond. Landing on the coast of Florida, he traversed the wilderness for many months passing through what is now Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. In 1541 he reached the Mississippi River and then wandered through the greater part of Arkansas. Coming back, the brave leader, who now despaired of rivaling the success of Pizarro or Cortez, sank under a fever, and his body, wrapped in his mantle, made heavy with sand, was buried in the waters of the Mississippi. His men, after this event, wandered as far as Texas, but returning, constructed boats and thus escaped to Mexico.

47. *These expeditions* convinced the Spaniards that the territory now covered by the United States was not rich in

[1] A legend had long prevailed among the Spaniards that, when the Arabs conquered the Spanish peninsula in the eighth century, the Bishop of Lisbon, along with many followers, took refuge in islands lying in the Sea of Darkness (the unexplored Atlantic Ocean), and there founded seven cities, which the Spaniards somehow imagined to be located in the unknown regions north of them. Marcos had gone but a little way when he heard of seven splendid cities to the north, the first of which was called Cibola. Pressing forward, he caught a glimpse of this city, although he was not allowed to enter it. It turned out afterwards that Cibola was only one of the seven pueblos of the Zuñi Indians, henceforth known as the "Seven Cities of Cibola."

precious metals, and that it was occupied only by savage and warlike tribes. This fact served to center their attention almost entirely on Mexico, the West Indies, and South America, countries abounding in gold and silver and the rarest vegetable fibers, and inhabited by peaceful and submissive tribes. It was not until 1565 that a permanent Spanish colony was planted in the present bounds of the United States; this was at St. Augustine in Florida (§ 51). In 1582 Santa Fé (sahn-tah fā′) was founded by Espejo (ĕs pā′ho) in New Mexico, and later on a settlement was made on the Rio Grande.

Early French Explorations

48. Giovanni de Verrazano. As early as 1504 French sailors voyaged every year to the banks of Newfoundland to take part in the cod fisheries.[1] Fourteen years later Baron de Leri made a settlement on Sable Island, in the ocean south of Cape Breton Island, but the colonists were driven away by famine. A war breaking out between France and Spain, which blocked the usual routes to India, the French became eager to discover a passage to Asia through or around North America. A fleet was fitted out for Giovanni de Verrazano (jo-vah′ne dā ver raht-sah′no), a native of Florence in the service of the French king, who, passing Hatteras early in 1524 and sailing as far north as Newfoundland, gave that part of the continent the name of New France.

49. Jacques Cartier (zhăk kar tyā′) was as unsuccessful as Verrazano in finding the Northwest Passage. In 1534 he entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence,[2] but could not advance on account of the late season into the broad mouth of a strait

[1] Cape Breton Island derived its name from Brittany, in France, many of whose sailors were engaged in the Newfoundland fisheries.

[2] Cartier gave the name "St. Lawrence" to the river, as he first entered it on that saint's day.

which he saw and supposed led westward into the Indian Ocean. In the following year he returned and sailed up the great river beyond the Indian village of Hochelaga (ho shĕl'-a ga), which he visited. Climbing to the top of the lofty hill at this point, he gave it the name of Mont Real; that is to

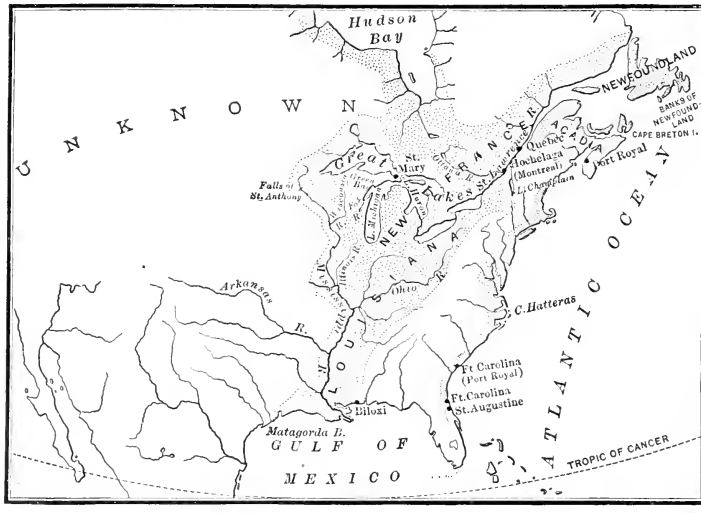
Cartier at the Indian Village

say, Royal Mountain. In 1541 he attempted to plant a colony near the present site of Quebec, but the following spring he returned to Maine and the colony soon perished.

50. Jean Ribault. About 1562 France was torn by the wars which raged between the Protestants and Roman Catholics. Coligny (ko leen yee'), the leader of the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were known, hoping to found a settlement in America, which would be a place of refuge for members of his persecuted sect, sent out an expedition under the command of Jean Ribault (zhon ree bō'), a French seaman. Ribault sighted land in Florida, and then

sailing northward, built Fort Carolina and planted a colony of thirty persons at Port Royal on the coast of South Carolina. Not long after his return to France for supplies famine broke out at Port Royal. In trying to escape to France in a frail vessel of their own construction the surviving colonists were captured by the English, but not until they had killed one of their own company for food.[1]

51. René de Laudonnière (re nā′ de lo do nyêr′), in 1564, reached Port Royal, but finding the colonists gone, built another Fort



French Explorations in North America, to 1700

Carolina on St. Johns River. When news of this settlement was brought to Spain, Pedro Menendez (mā nān′dāth) was sent to drive out the French as trespassers in Spanish territory. Landing his men and stores at a spot which he named St.

[1] Some of the captives were landed in France, others in England. Queen Elizabeth, in conversing with the latter, is said to have first thought of colonizing the New World.

Augustine, he took advantage of the wreck of the French fleet by a storm to hurry across to Fort Carolina. The garrison were taken by surprise, and slaughtered without mercy. Several hundred of the settlers — men, women, and children — were also butchered. Returning to St. Augustine, the Spaniards seized and killed the crews of the wrecked French vessels straggling back along the sands of the seashore.

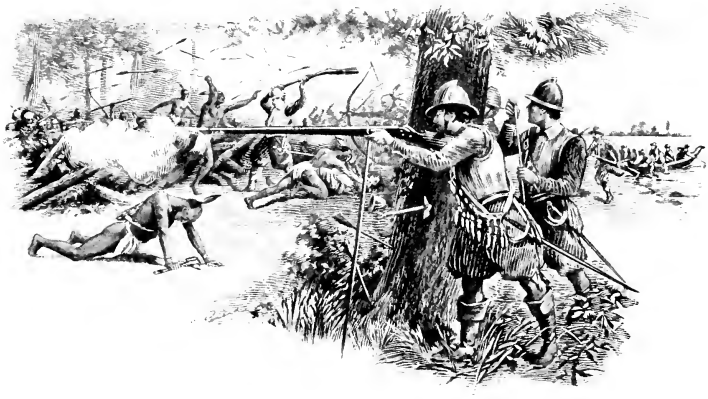
52. Dominique de Gourgues. Reports of the massacre coming in 1567 to Dominique de Gourgues (do mee neek′ de goorg′), a French gentleman, he fitted out an expedition, and in the absence of Menendez in Spain captured a Spanish fort on the site of Fort Carolina, and slaughtered or hanged the entire garrison. The expedition returned to France, leaving the country still in the possession of Spain.

Permanent French Colonization

53. New France. *Sieur de Monts.* The work of French colonization had come to a bloody end in the south, but in 1603 it began again in the north. In that year Sieur de Monts (syĕr de mon′), who had received a grant of the country as far south as Pennsylvania, planted a colony on an island at the mouth of the St. Croix (kroi). In 1605, which was two years before the first permanent English settlement in America was made at Jamestown, he removed his colony across the Bay of Fundy to Port Royal in Nova Scotia, which became the first permanent French settlement. The term "Acadia" was at first applied to the whole of De Monts's grant, but was afterwards restricted to what is now Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

54. *Samuel de Champlain* (shăm plān′) was a man of many virtues and accomplishments. He boldly crossed the ocean in a bark of only fifteen tons' burden. Not long after his arrival in the St. Lawrence, on his second voyage, he

founded the town of Quebec. In 1609, pushing out into the wilderness, with a war party of Indians, he discovered the lake which bears his name; and in 1615 Lakes Huron and Ontario. Surrounded by the Hurons and Algonquins, who were at war with the Iroquois, he was forced by his position to become the enemy of the latter. This raised an inappeasable hatred of the French in the hearts of the Iroquois, which led them to resist successfully the advance of the French



Champlain's Battle with the Indians

power southward. For many years they harassed the French settlements, and were guilty of frightful barbarities to French pioneers, who ventured as far as central New York. Champlain was appointed governor of New France, and dying in 1635, left it in a flourishing condition.

55. Jesuit Fathers. *A great missionary work* was done among the Indian tribes by the Society of Jesus. The first of the Jesuit priests to come over, Fathers Biard (byar) and Masse (mahs), arrived about 1611, and, from that time, were followed, year by year, by others, all of whom in turn plunged

into the west, where to this day French names of places bear witness to their former presence. In a few years they had established missions on the Great Lakes, the oldest of which is St. Mary in Michigan; and they faced every hardship and danger, and endured every torture — scalping, roasting, and boiling — in trying to convert the Indians to Christianity.

56. *Father Marquette* (mar ket'), in 1673, offered Governor Talon (tah lox') at Montreal his services in exploring the river and valley of the Mississippi. Joliet (zho lyā'), a fur trader familiar with the western country, was sent out to accompany him. Starting in their birch-bark canoes with five companions from the north end of Lake Michigan, by the end of seven

Marquette and Joliet

days they reached the Mississippi by way of the Fox and Wisconsin rivers and then floated as far down as the mouth of the Arkansas (ar' kan saw). Returning, they followed the Illinois nearly to its source. Two years later Marquette fell ill during a voyage on Lake Michigan; he went ashore with his companions, and soon died in the act of prayer.

57. La Salle. Robert Cavelier de La Salle (lah sahl'), who had already gone through the forests as far as the Ohio River, decided to continue the voyage of Marquette and Joliet down to the mouth of the Mississippi, and take possession of the

country in the name of the French king. Having planned to raise a line of forts from the Lakes to the Gulf, he built the first near the southern end of Lake Michigan; the second near Peoria, on the Illinois River. About this time Father Hen'nepin, while a captive among the Sioux (soo), explored the upper waters of the Mississippi River, as far as the Falls of St. Anthony.

58. *Louisiana.* It was not until December, 1681, that La Salle and his companion, De Tonti, who had come over from France with him, began their expedition southward to the Mississippi River. The ground was covered with snow. When they reached the river, they found its surface hidden by floating ice and trunks of trees, but this did not discourage them. As they passed on down the stream, they planted, on the bank, tall crosses bearing the arms and motto of France. In April, 1682, they reached the mouth, and La Salle, in honor of his king, named the country through which he had been traveling, Louisiana.

59. *Death of La Salle.* Returning to Canada, La Salle next visited France to procure aid in his plans for the settlement of Louisiana. In 1684 he sailed directly for the Gulf of Mexico with several ships, but, as the pilots were ignorant of the coast, the ships came to anchor in Matagorda Bay, several hundred miles west of the mouth of the Mississippi, and here a fort was built. At the end of two years, the fleet having gone back to France, only forty colonists survived. In despair, La Salle set out, with a few companions, to make the journey to the French forts north of the Ohio, but was soon treacherously murdered by two of his own men. It was not until 1699 that D'Iberville (ee ber veel') founded a colony at Biloxi on the Gulf, and this was the first settlement of the French in that region. In 1702 it was removed to Mobile.

Later English Explorations

60. English Apathy. Although the English claimed the northern part of the American continent by right of the discoveries of the Cabots (§§ 30, 31), they were among the last to take a very active part in its exploration and colonization. England was in that age not so powerful as France or Spain, and therefore was slow to excite the hostility of either of them by seizing territory in the western world. In Queen Elizabeth's time, however, the English flag began to be displayed upon our waters.

61. Sir John Hawkins. As early as 1530 many bold and enterprising English sailors were supplying the Spanish mines and plantations in the West Indies with African slaves. In the years 1562, 1564, and 1567 Sir John Hawkins carried thither cargoes of negroes, and exchanged them for valuable cargoes of tropical products, which found a ready sale in Europe. While returning home after one of these voyages, he touched on the coast of Florida, and his account of its beauty aroused a new interest in America among the English people.

62. Drake and his Exploits. Sir John Hawkins was treacherously attacked on the coast of Mexico by Spaniards, and only succeeded in getting away with two of his ships. One of his companions was Sir Francis Drake, who determined to devote his life to wreaking vengeance for the wrong that had been done the English on this occasion. Elizabeth, a woman with a lion's heart, was queen of England, and as she was a Protestant, she encouraged the assaults on the Spanish power, whose cruelty and arrogance she detested.

63. *The English Dragon.* It was not long before Drake began to plunder many of the wealthiest towns in the West Indies. Happening to be on the Isthmus of Panama in one of his expeditions, he saw the Pacific Ocean from the top of a tree

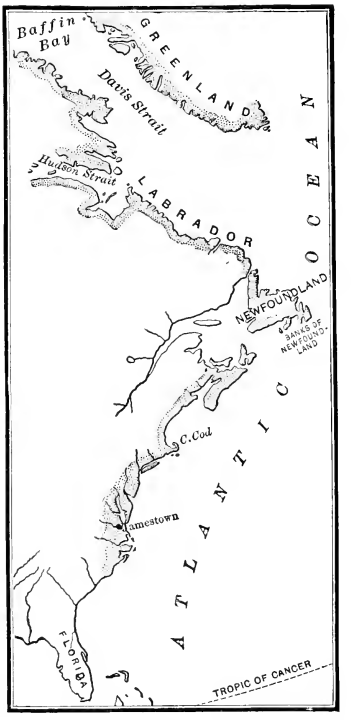
and swore that he "would sail an English ship on those seas." In 1577 he set out with a fleet of four ships directly for the Straits of Magellan, but on reaching the Pacific, only one vessel remained with him; the rest had deserted. Entering port after port, he had already secured an enormous booty when he captured a Spanish galleon loaded down with silver, gold, and precious stones. He sailed northward along the Pacific coast, far beyond the Spanish settlements, and then, crossing the Pacific, he returned to England in 1580 by rounding the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the circuit of the globe. Drake was knighted by Queen Elizabeth, but the Spaniards cursed him as a pirate, and always spoke of him among themselves as the "Dragon."

Sir Francis Drake

64. The Spanish Armada. English privateersmen, known as sea dogs, darting from the English Channel, seized the Spanish treasure ships on their way to Cadiz; or they plundered and burned Spanish towns in the West Indies. The Netherlands were now in a state of insurrection, and Spain was afraid lest the English should assist the Dutch to win their independence. Inflamed by these facts, she sent a great fleet, called the Armada, in 1588, to conquer England. The English vessels swarmed forth under Hawkins and Drake, Frob'isher and Grenville, Howard, Cav'endish and Raleigh (raw'lĭ). It was like a conflict between a whale and a swordfish. All that remained of the Spanish fleet was driven headlong into the

North Sea. Many ships were wrecked on the rocks in the frantic effort to escape by way of the Hebrides and the west coast of Ireland, and less than one half the vessels ever reached a Spanish harbor again.

65. Frobisher and Davis. In spite of Drake's voyage along the Pacific coast (§ 63), North America was still thought to be a narrow strip of land, through which a strait connected the waters of the Atlantic and the Indian Ocean. Frobisher (§ 64) made several voyages to discover this strait, in the course of one of which he entered Hudson Strait. He was followed by John Davis (1585), from whom Davis Strait is named. As late as 1610 Henry Hudson, who was in the employment of the Dutch, supposed that the Hudson River, which he had entered, was the outlet to the Indian Ocean; and John Smith, about the same time, thought the Chickahominy River, in Virginia, ran back to the same seas.



English Explorations in North America, to 1607

English Failures in Colonization

66. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who believed that the true policy was to found colonies instead of searching for gold, was the pioneer of English colonization in the New World. In 1583,

under a charter from the crown, he took possession of Newfoundland, but on his return voyage to England, his ship, the *Squirrel*, was swallowed up by the waves. "It is as near to heaven by sea as by land," were the last words he was heard to speak. He was succeeded in his charter rights by Sir Walter Raleigh, his half brother, one of the most accomplished men of his age, who first won the favor of Queen Elizabeth by throwing his cloak on the ground to enable her to pass dry shod over a wet spot.

67. Raleigh, in 1584, dispatched Captains Am'idas and Barlow to explore the coast of the Carolinas. Before they came in sight of land they were greeted by breezes from the shore, perfumed as if blown across a garden in spring. The whole country was found to be overgrown with pine and cedar, flowering trees, and plants. Elizabeth was so delighted with the accounts of its beauty that she named it "Virginia," in honor of herself, the Virgin Queen.

Sir Walter Raleigh

68. *Raleigh's Colony on Roanoke Island.* In 1585 an expedition which Raleigh sent out under the command of Sir Richard Grenville landed on Roanoke Island, north of Cape Hatteras (map, p. 50), and built a fort, but the colonists were more interested in hunting for gold than in making use of the soil for their own support. They soon came to blows with the Indians, and the few escaping starvation were, in 1586, carried back to England by Drake, who was passing that way from the West Indies.

69. *The Lost Colony.* In the following year a large company, made up of women and children as well as men, landed on the island. Here the daughter of Governor White soon gave birth to a girl, Virginia Dare, the first child of English parentage born in America. White returned to England for

supplies, and when he came back to Roanoke, three years later, he found the settlement in ruins and nothing to show what had become of the colonists but the word "Croatan" carved in the bark of a tree. This was the Indian name of a neighboring island. Not a trace of the colonists was afterwards discovered.

70. *Raleigh's enterprises failed,* but they led to the introduction into England of tobacco, sassafras, and Indian corn. James I succeeded Elizabeth, and one of his first acts was to throw Raleigh into prison. Here he remained until 1616, when he was released to lead an expedition to Guiana in search of gold. This proving unsuccessful, he was, on his return, beheaded.[1]

71. Bartholomew Gosnold, in 1602, instead of sailing to the West Indies first, the usual route to America at that time, directed the prow of his ship straight across the Atlantic from the Azores, and reached the coast of Maine in fifty days, seventy less than the ordinary voyage required. Skirting the New England shore, he explored it as far as Buzzards Bay, in southern Massachusetts. At this point he planted a colony, but when he set out for England, the people raised a clamor and insisted on going back with him. In the next year Martin Pring visited the vicinity of Cape Cod, and, in 1605, was followed by Sir George Weymouth, who curiously enough reported the climate to be suited to the growth of tropical plants.

[1] An amusing story is told of how, one day, while Raleigh, in the enjoyment of his pipe, was blowing the smoke out of his mouth, his servant entered the room bearing a tankard of ale, and seeing the smoke and thinking her master on fire, in great haste and consternation poured all the liquor over his head in order to put out the supposed flames! No man ever died more bravely than Raleigh. As he felt the edge of the ax on the scaffold just before his execution, he is said to have remarked, "This is a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases." The capital of North Carolina is very appropriately named after the founder of the Roanoke colony.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD I

DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION.

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  3. Bjarni, Leif, and Thorfinn.
- II. Portuguese.
  1. Reasons for seeking a shorter route to Asia.
  2. African Voyages.
     1. The Equator Crossed.
     2. The Cape of Good Hope Rounded.
  3. Prince Henry of Portugal.
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     3. His Final Success.
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     6. Returns to Spain.
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     1. Alvarez de Pineda.
     2. Ponce de Leon.
     3. Vasquez d'Ayllon.
     4. De Narvaez and De Vaca.
     5. De Soto.
  5. Conquest of Mexico.
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  4. Ribault and Port Royal.
  5. Laudonnière and Fort Carolina.
  6. De Gourgues.
  7. De Monts and Port Royal.
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     2. Marquette.
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- V. English.
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- VI. English Failures in Colonization.
  1. Gilbert.
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     1. Sends Exploring Expedition to Carolina Coast.
     2. First Colonies on Roanoke Island.
     3. Death of Raleigh.
  3. Gosnold.

PERIOD II. PERMANENT COLONIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Southern Colonies — Virginia

72. The Virginia Company. Although Raleigh's colony at Roanoke ended in disaster, after a vast expenditure of money, the influence of his example was to bear fruit in the achievements of those who were to come after him. It was seen that the work was too costly for the purse of a single individual. The Muscovy and East India joint stock companies, organized for the purpose of trading with Russia and the Asiatic countries, were very prosperous, and this fact suggested and encouraged the formation of a Virginia company of the same general commercial nature, which should also found English settlements in America.

73. *The Companies' Territory.* In 1606 a company was chartered with two subdivisions,—the Virginia Company of London, which was made up chiefly of citizens of London; and the Virginia Company of Plymouth, comprised chiefly of persons residing in Devonshire, in the vicinity of Plymouth. To the first, King James granted the right to found a colony, one hundred miles square, anywhere between the 34th and 41st degrees of north latitude (*i.e.* between the Cape Fear River and the mouth of the Hudson); and to the second, a colony one hundred miles square, anywhere between the 38th and 45th degrees of north latitude (*i.e.* between the Potomac and Nova Scotia). Either company could occupy ground in the overlapping region, provided the settlement should not be placed

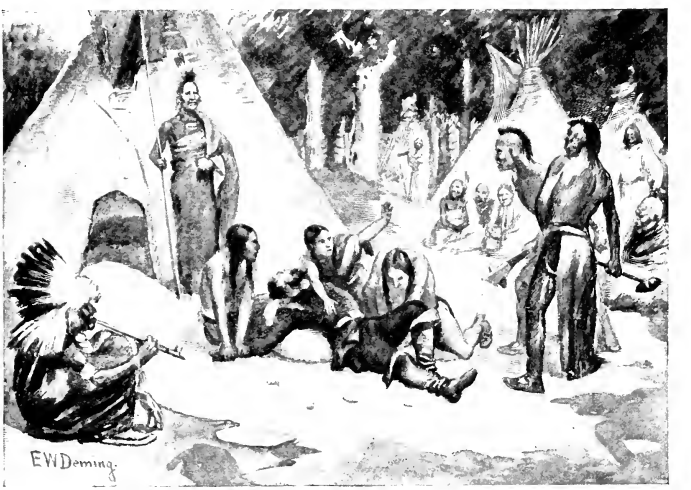
within one hundred miles of any settlement established by the other company.

74. Jamestown Founded. *Captain John Smith.* In December, 1606, the stormiest part of the year, the first expedition equipped by the London Company left London for Virginia in three small vessels, the *Susan* (Sarah) *Constant*, the *Godspeed*, and the *Discovery*, manned by thirty-nine sailors, and carrying one hundred and five passengers. The largest of the ships was only one hundred tons in burden; the smallest, twenty tons. Of the members of the Council who went over, the most notable was John Smith. From his youth he had led a career of adventure, — had taken part in the wars of Holland, had passed into the service of the king of Hungary, had been captured by the Turks, and had then escaped to Russia. Making his way back to England, he had aided in organizing the expedition to Virginia, as opening a new field of enterprise.

75. *The First Months.* Passing into the Chesapeake, and sailing up the broad Powhatan, as the Indians had named the modern James, the voyagers were lost in delighted amazement at the sight of the magnificent forests on either bank, the brilliant plumage of the birds, the clearness and softness of the air. In May, 1607, the fleet dropped anchor off the peninsula which has become Jamestown Island. The settlers soon built a fort and a few thatched huts. But what with the growing hostility of the natives, the lurking poison of the surrounding marshes, and the weakening effect of labor in the summer fields, the colonists began to die in great numbers, and by August few persons in the settlement were in good health.

76. *Pocahontas.* Smith, in order to procure corn from the Indians, made a voyage up the Chickahominy, and in the course of it was captured. He was carried to the village of

Powhatan situated on the York; his head was laid on a large stone, and the Indians' clubs were about to descend, when Pocahontas (po ca hŏn'tas), the favorite young daughter of the king, sprang forth and interceded for his life.[1] Smith was sent back to Jamestown in safety, and afterwards, Pocahontas, once every four or five days, brought food for the unfortunate set-



Pocahontas and Smith

tlers. Smith himself added to these supplies by making voyages up the Chesapeake and its tributaries and bringing back loads of corn. It was chiefly due to his energy and sagacity that the colony was preserved from absolute ruin.

[1] Some historians refuse to believe this incident, because Smith did not mention it in his first very brief account of his adventures in Virginia (1608). The story, however, is entirely consistent with Indian character and custom, and has in itself nothing incredible. Similar incidents are recorded in the lives of other persons taking part in the early explorations of America. Powhatan's village, called Werowocomo'co, was about fifteen miles northeast of Jamestown, on the north shore of the York, near its mouth.

77. Presidency of Smith. When chosen president of the colony in 1608, Smith carried out two rules in his government: (1) to make the colony self-supporting by relying on the resources of the country; (2) to keep the Indians in awe by a bold and resolute front. He built new cabins and a church, sank wells for pure water, encouraged the raising of hogs, and tried the cultivation of corn. The colony had reached a high state of prosperity in consequence of the firmness and sagacity of Smith, when his presidency came to an end, and being disabled by an explosion of gunpowder, he returned to England.

Captain John Smith

78. Starving Time. After Smith's departure the colony, owing to bad management, fell into a deplorable condition. From October, 1609, to June, 1610, man after man died. All the supplies which Smith had gathered together were soon used up. There was no wholesome food for the famishing people. They fed ravenously on roots, herbs, acorns, walnuts, and berries, and on skins and snakes.

79. Sir Thomas Gates, on his arrival in Virginia in June, 1610, with a large number of new settlers, thought it wisest to abandon the colony, so low had it fallen. He started down the James River with all on board. It was not long before he saw sailing toward him three large vessels, which proved to be those of Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of Virginia. The fleet returned to Jamestown, where a solemn service was held in the church to celebrate the restoration of the colony. From this time on it steadily grew in prosperity, especially during the administration of Sir Thomas Dale, who put in force a strict military discipline. Up to this date no one had had any private ownership in the land. All property

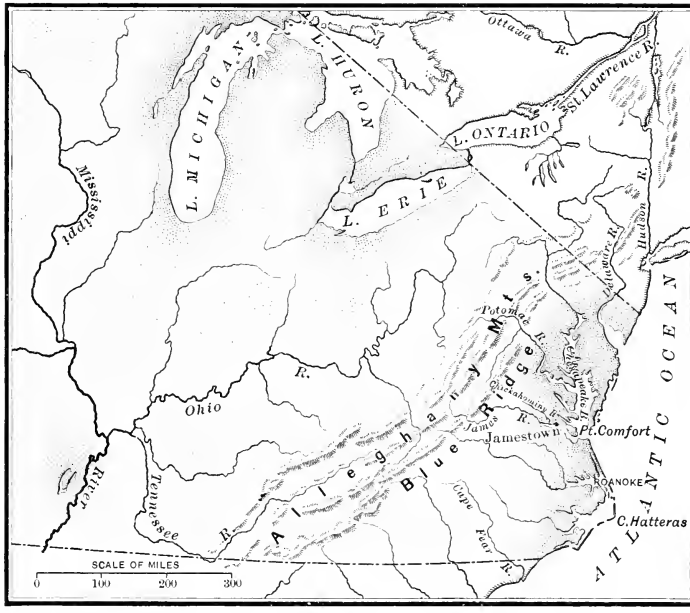
was owned together, and the needs of the colonists were supplied from a common storehouse. Dale gave three acres apiece to the settlers who had been longest in Virginia, and allowed them a month in the year to work the soil. It was not until some years later that the right to divide the land into separate farms was granted.

80. Marriage of Pocahontas. When Smith sailed away from Virginia, Pocahontas ceased all intercourse with the English, and went to live with one of the Potomac tribes. Captain Argall, sailing up that river, induced the Indians to give her up in return for a copper kettle, and he then brought her to Jamestown. An affection soon sprang up between her and John Rolfe, a settler, and they were married. She had already been baptized with the name of Rebecca. The alliance led to a lasting peace with her father, Powhatan. Some years later she visited England, where she was received at court as a princess, and had her portrait painted. She died at Gravesend when about to embark for America. John Rolfe was the first Englishman to cultivate tobacco in the colony, and it soon became the chief staple of Virginia.

Pocahontas

81. The Charters. Under the first charter which James I granted to the London Company the government of the colony was directly in the hands of the king. He appointed the Council in England, which in turn appointed the Council in Virginia. The Council in Virginia chose the president of the colony. Under the second charter (1609) the stockholders of the Company elected the Council in England, which in turn appointed the Council sitting in Virginia and also the governor of the colony. By its terms also the boundaries of the

colony along the coast were extended two hundred miles north from Point Comfort, and two hundred miles south, and west and northwest from sea to sea. In 1624 the charter was revoked, and the colony again became subject immediately to the king.



Virginia by the Charter of 1609

82. First Legislature. Sir George Yeard'ley, who came over as governor for the second time, in 1619, was given the authority to call an assembly. This was the first legislature to come together in North America, and its meeting is one of the greatest events in the history of our country. It met in 1619 in the choir of the church at Jamestown, and was made up of the governor, the members of the Council, and twenty-two burgesses elected by the people. In time the

other American colonies gained the same legislative system, and to-day the government of the United States and the different States is modeled upon the same form.

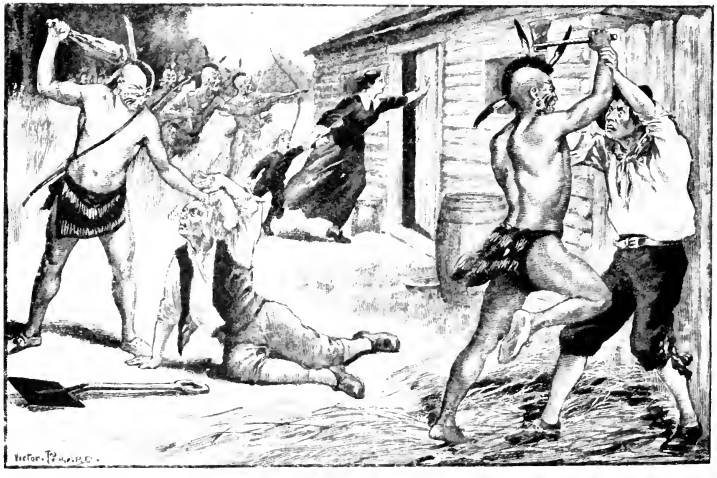
83. Servants and Slaves. *The lands in Virginia* were worked by servants and slaves. The servants were poor boys picked up in the streets of London, or poor persons from the country, or children who had been stolen and sold to the ship-masters. Some were men and women who had broken the English laws (which, in those times, imposed death for offenses now punished by short imprisonment[1]), and were sent out to the colony instead of being hung; others had been taken prisoners while in rebellion against the king.

84. *The first negro slaves* in Virginia were brought in by a Dutch ship in 1619, and their number steadily increased. They were of more advantage to the planters than white servants, because (1) they were held for life, and not for a mere term of years; (2) they stood the heat of the summer fields better; (3) they were less expensive to feed and clothe. The population of the colony in 1622 numbered 4000 persons, who were in the enjoyment of such plenty that it was said at the time, that every man gave "free entertainment" to his friends and to strangers. There was an extraordinary abundance of grain, fruit, and vegetables; wine and silk were made in considerable quantities; and the crop of tobacco had swelled to 60,000 pounds. The herds of cattle had rapidly increased. The dwelling houses were now substantially and comfortably built. Owing to the London Company importing a great number of young women, every freeman of means was able to obtain a wife. Before he could marry her, he had to

[1] During this period of English history there were many crimes for which the punishment was death. It was shocking to the feelings of the magistrates, even in that age, to carry out strictly the criminal code then in force, so, in many cases, they would sentence a prisoner to be sent to the colonies instead of to be killed.

pay the Company the cost of bringing her to Virginia. This at first was one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco, but as the price of tobacco went down, the price of a wife rose to one hundred and fifty pounds.

85. Indian Massacres. In 1622 the Indians, under the lead of Opechancanough (op e kan'ka no), began to plot the massacre of the colonists, who had now grown so prosperous. At first, no proof of the plot came to light. The Indians entered



The Massacre of 1622

the houses of the English as freely as ever, ate at their tables, played games with them in the open air, and hunted deer and turkeys for them in the forest. Falling upon the colonists suddenly in all the settlements at the same hour, they killed all they could, sparing neither man, woman, nor child; burned many houses; and drove off the cattle. It took the English many years to recover from this blow. When they had become prosperous again, a second massacre occurred (1644), but this fell only on the frontiers. Opechancanough,

now so old that his eyelids had to be lifted by hand, was captured, and while in the custody of a soldier was basely shot in the back and killed.

86. The Cavaliers. The Virginians, as a mass, were devoted to the monarchy and the Church of England. When Charles I was beheaded by Cromwell, they denounced the act as treason, and proclaimed Charles II as king. He from his retreat in Holland warmly thanked them for their loyalty and fidelity. The supremacy of the Puritans in England caused a great rush of Cavaliers, who had been supporters of the beheaded king, to Virginia. They had, as a rule, been members of the landed gentry of England; and the plantation life in Virginia, with its broad estates, abundance of supplies, and open-air sports and pursuits, was very congenial to their tastes. Parliament soon sent out a fleet to subdue the Virginians. Governor Berkeley put the colony in a state of defense; and when the fleet arrived, this determined attitude led to an agreement by which the Virginians were left at liberty to trade with all the world, and also to be taxed only with the consent of their own House of Burgesses.

87. Bacon's Rebellion. *Causes.* As soon as Charles II was restored to the throne, an Act of Navigation,[1] as it was termed, was passed (1660), requiring, among other things, that all Virginia tobacco should be brought first to England, whether intended for a foreign country or not; and that it should be carried across the ocean only in ships built and owned in England or the colonies. It was also required that three fourths of the mariners of these ships should be Englishmen. Virginia's valuable trade with Holland was thus practically destroyed. To make matters worse, Berkeley, for many years, refused to dissolve the Assembly, which, at his or their own

[1] The first Act of Navigation, passed in 1651, in the time of Cromwell, was not strictly enforced.

bidding, laid oppressive taxes, voted themselves high salaries, persecuted the Quakers and limited the suffrage to freeholders and housekeepers. The Indians on the frontier became restive; and the governor, who had a monopoly of the fur trade, made no effort to suppress them, because it would have put an end to his profits. All these influences tended to make the body of the people suspicious and turbulent.

88. *The butcheries by the Indians* on the frontiers, in 1676, alarmed the people so much that they organized a small

Berkeley and Bacon

army, and put at its head Nathaniel Bacon, a young man recently arrived from England. Without waiting for the approval of Governor Berkeley, Bacon marched against the savages, and was proclaimed a rebel. Having conquered the Indians, he was soon pardoned; but suspecting evil designs against himself, left Jamestown. He soon returned at the head of an army of men, and was met at the Assembly door

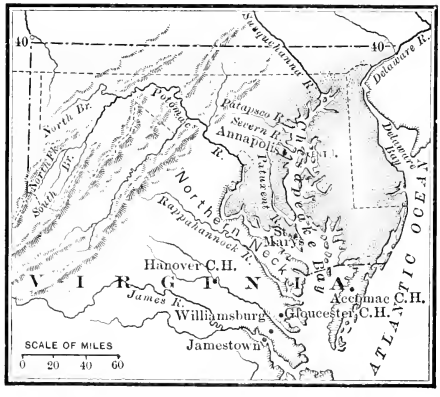
by Berkeley, who cried out passionately: "Here, shoot me; 'fore God, a fair mark! shoot." Bacon, disclaiming all intention of violence, only asked for a commission to protect the settlers from the guns and tomahawks of the Indians. To this Berkeley agreed; but suddenly retired to Gloucester County, and there raised the royal standard. On the approach of Bacon's army, however, he fled to Accomac (map, p. 56). Bacon now called together a convention of the people, which met in August, 1676. The convention denounced the Navigation Act (§ 87) and the severe tax laws; proclaimed that Berkeley, by his flight, had given up the governorship; and urged resistance to a royal army should one be sent before the character of the situation was explained to the king.

89. *Cruelty of Berkeley.* In September, 1676, Berkeley returned from Accomac to Jamestown, at the head of an army. Bacon, summoning his men, drove the governor to his ships and burned the town. Two of Bacon's principal supporters, Drummond and Lawrence, who had their homes there, set fire to their residences with their own hands. Berkeley again fled to Accomac. Bacon was now in undisputed control, but while in Gloucester County he died, and his body is supposed to have been buried in one of the rivers of that county. With Bacon's death all opposition at once ceased. The governor started upon a course of revenge so reckless that he seemed insane. "The old fool," exclaimed Charles II, when he heard of Berkeley's bloody course, "has put to death more people in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father." One of the noblest of his victims was Thomas Hansford, the first American martyr to political freedom. "Take notice," he said, calmly and proudly, as he stood under the gallows, "I die a loyal subject and lover of my country." Berkeley was soon recalled, and the people lit bonfires in celebration of his departure.

Southern Colonies — Maryland

90. Sir George Calvert. The founder of Maryland was George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic, who was anxious to establish in America an asylum for the persecuted Catholics. In England at this time no member of that religious body could have his children educated by a schoolmaster of his own faith; or have Catholic books in his house; or sit in Parliament; or carry a weapon; or be buried in the parish churchyard. Calvert was first made Lord of the Province of Avalon, in Newfoundland, but finding the climate harsh, he secured, two years later, a grant to the unoccupied region lying north of the Potomac, as far as the 40th parallel, and extending westward to a line drawn north and south through the source of the same river. As he died before the patent was issued, his charter fell to his son Cecilius, the second Lord Baltimore. The new province was named Maryland, in honor of Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I, and under the terms of the charter was held by the Calverts almost as if it were an independent kingdom. They could coin money, create a

George Calvert



Maryland by the Original Charter

nobility, establish courts, appoint judges, pardon criminals, and veto or approve all laws for the colony. At first they claimed the right to dictate legislation, but this the Assembly refused to allow.

91. St. Marys Founded. In February, 1634, the two brothers of Lord Baltimore, Leonard and George, with a company of twenty Roman Catholic gentlemen and many laborers, who had come over with them in the *Ark* and the *Dove*, anchored near the mouth of the Potomac. They soon founded the settlement of St. Marys, on a site purchased from the Indians with cloth, axes, and hatchets. It was the policy of the colonists to treat the Indians with the exactest justice, a course amply rewarded by the rapid growth of the community.

92. William Claiborne. The Virginians hated the first settlers of Maryland as papists, and as trespassers on the soil of Virginia, for the new province was within the limits of the older colony. William Claiborne had received from the governor of Virginia a grant of Kent Island, in the Chesapeake Bay. The authorities of Maryland declared that, as Kent Island was in their territory, they alone could license him to trade with the Indians; but Claiborne, refusing to recognize the validity of the Maryland charter, claimed that this license could only be issued by the Virginian authorities. A conflict arose. In 1644 Claiborne, by force of arms, seized upon Kent Island, which had been taken away from him by Calvert; but two years later he was driven from the province.

93. Religious Toleration. Lord Baltimore, from the beginning, invited to his colony the hunted followers of all persecuted religious bodies. The adoption of the Toleration Act in 1649, which made the kind and liberal treatment of all Christian sects the fundamental law of the province, is one of the most memorable events in the history of modern legislation. At this time the Puritans were persecuting other Protestant

denominations in New England, and the Episcopalians were hounding the Puritans and Quakers from Virginia. When the Commonwealth was set up in England, the Puritans began to persecute the Roman Catholics in Maryland. They refused to admit them to the Assembly, and even tried to deprive them of the protection of the law. The conflict of feeling led, in 1655, to a battle on the banks of the Severn, in which the Puritans were successful. In 1658 the Calverts, who had been deposed, were restored by Cromwell, but, in 1691, were again displaced because they had supported James II; the Church of England was restored; and all Roman Catholics were disfranchised. Until 1716 Maryland was ruled by governors appointed by the crown. In that year the fourth Lord Baltimore, who had become a Protestant, was restored by Queen Anne to the rights of his family in the province, which the family retained down to the Revolution.

Southern Colonies — North Carolina

94. Early Settlements. Down to 1729 North and South Carolina were one, but as the two colonies, though politically united, were widely separated, they were really two distinct communities from the beginning, known at first as the Albemarle and the Carteret Colonies, after two of the proprietaries to whom the territory was granted. The country had been called Carolina by the French settlers in honor of their king (Charles or Caro'lus), and the name was retained by the English in honor of Charles II.

95. The Royal Grant. The colony founded by Raleigh on Roanoke Island having failed (§§ 68, 69), it was not until the middle of the next century that a settlement was made south of Virginia. Carolina then began to fill up with Quakers and other dissenters seeking a place where they could worship in freedom, and with white freedmen whose terms of service in

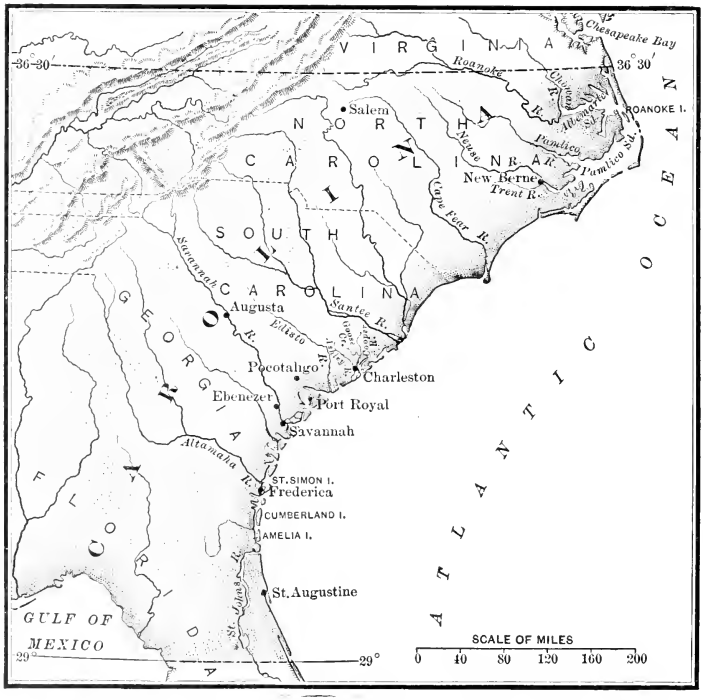
Virginia had expired. Persons who preferred a wilder country and greater seclusion than Virginia offered also came in great numbers. The first settlement was made on the Chowan River, near the head of Albemarle Sound, under the lead of Roger Green, in 1653; the next in importance, in 1663, on the Cape Fear River, by emigrants from Barbados, one of the English West Indian Islands. The latter supported themselves by exporting staves and shingles to their former home. In 1663 Charles II granted the territory as far south as the parallel of 29° north latitude, and west to the Pacific to eight noblemen, headed by Lords Clarendon and Albemarle, and for the first time it became separate from Virginia.

96. Grand Model. The first constitution of the colony, known as the Grand Model, was drawn up by the celebrated English philosopher, John Locke, and divided the country into provinces, and the white people into classes known as landgraves, caciques, and commons. It sought to plant a system of European nobility in the American backwoods, which, very naturally, failed. The commons had little share in the conduct of affairs, and under this scheme were little superior to the serfs of Russia. The eldest of the proprietaries had all the powers of a king. No laws could be passed except those the Governor's Council had proposed. This foolish constitution caused great discontent and turbulence among the people, and was at last abolished.

97. Resistance to Taxation. In 1703 the Church of England was declared to be the only legal church of the colony, and a general tax was laid for its support. As the population was chiefly made up of Quakers, Baptists, and Presbyterians, this tax raised a great uproar, and its payment was resisted until the law was revoked.

98. Indian Fort on the Neuse. In 1711, while De Graff'enreid, who had planted at New Berne a colony from the valley of the

Rhine, in Germany, was going up the Neuse River, with Lawson, the surveyor general, he was captured by the Tuscarora Indians. Lawson was burned at the stake, but De Graffenreid was let loose on promising that no more lands of the Tusca-



Carolina by the Grant of 1663

roras would be taken up. The intrusion of the whites, however, went on, and war broke out. Colonel John Barnwell, of South Carolina, marching to the aid of the colonists, laid siege to the Indian fort on the banks of the Neuse. After many Indians had fallen, the survivors sued for peace, but before Barnwell could get back home the faithless enemy began to butcher

again. A force under Colonel James Moore assaulted their stronghold and captured eight hundred prisoners. The Tuscaroras were so badly beaten that they decided to join their fellow Iroquois in the Mohawk Valley, in New York (§ 3).

99. Immigration. Early in the eighteenth century large numbers of Germans, Swedes, and Huguenots settled in the valleys of the Neuse, Trent, and Pamlico. About 1750 a large body of Moravians settled on the site of Salem, and from 1750 to 1760 a great wave of Scotch-Irish poured into the western and central parts of the colony.

Southern Colonies — South Carolina

100. Charleston Founded. In 1670 a band of Englishmen, under Governor Sayle, who had been sent out by the proprietaries, founded what was known as the Carteret Colony, on or near the same spot, but the next year they moved to the Ashley River, and a few years later to the site of Charleston. Here, in the neck between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, they built a village in the forests. A spirit of dissension broke out between the supporters of the Church of England, who favored submission in all things to the proprietaries; and the opponents of the Church of England, who declared that the orders of the proprietaries ought to be obeyed only when for the good of the colony. Owing to these differences, there were as many as five governors between 1682 and 1686.

French Settlers in South Carolina

101. The Spaniards at St. Augustine resisted the colonization of South Carolina by the English because it threatened their possessions in Florida. They first sought to egg on the colonists to revolt against the proprietaries; then to tempt the servants and slaves to fly from their masters; and at last, in 1686, they made an open attack on the settlement at Port Royal. The war thus brought on continued until 1706, when the Spanish and French fleets were repulsed in an assault on Charleston.

102. Yamassees Defeated. In 1715 hostilities began between the colonists and the Yamassee Indians. In April the latter burst into Pocotaligo, and massacred one hundred whites in a few minutes. A young man, flying from the scene of bloodshed, barely had time to warn the people of Port Royal. After a number of small defeats and victories a decisive success was won by Captain Chicken with the Goose Creek militia. This was energetically followed up, and, with the aid of troops from Virginia and North Carolina, and arms from New England, the Yamassees were at last driven into Florida.

103. The Pirates. About 1717 the coasts of the Carolinas were infested by swarms of pirates. The leader known as Blackbeard had under him a squadron of several ships. Bonnet and Worley, two of his lieutenants, were finally captured and hanged. Blackbeard surrendered and was pardoned, but, returning later to his old life, he was attacked by Lieutenant Maynard, in Pamlico Sound, and killed. His head was brought into Chesapeake Bay, dangling at the bowsprit of a vessel.

104. General Condition. *The Huguenots.* After Louis XIV repealed the Edict of Nantes, which had protected the French Huguenots from religious persecution, many of that people fled, first to England, then to America. The greater number

of these found, in 1686, an asylum in South Carolina, and spread themselves along the banks of the Cooper and Santee. In Charleston alone, at one time, there were 16,000 Huguenots. They brought with them many valuable plants and fruits, including the pear, olive, and mulberry. At first, the presence of the Frenchmen, so different in habits and names, was hateful to the English settlers, but this feeling gradually died out as the high character, chivalrous spirit, and thrifty habits of the new settlers came to be fully recognized. The influence of the Huguenot colonists made a deep impression on the society of South Carolina which has lasted to the present day.

Blackbeard

105. *Rice and Cotton.* It was not until 1693 that the people began to plant rice. One account says that the first seed used was given to Governor Smith by a sea captain who had just returned from Madagascar. In 1707 seventeen ships left South Carolina with cargoes of rice and by 1740 it yielded yearly about $1,000,000. It was not until after the Revolution that cotton became a valuable crop. From an early date African slaves were brought to South Carolina as peculiarly suited to the needs of rice culture as well as to the heat of the climate.

Southern Colonies — Georgia

106. Home for the Oppressed. The founder of Georgia was James O'glethorpe, an English gentleman who had served in wars with the Turks. His object in planting the colony was to furnish a home for the debtors who were languishing in the English jails, and also to create an asylum for the Protestants who were flying from persecution on the continent of Europe.

107. Savannah Founded. Having first touched at Charleston, Oglethorpe, in 1733, sailed up the Savannah, and on its bank chose, as the site of his future town, the ground on which the city of Savannah now stands. He not only paid the Indians for all the lands he used, but also entered into treaties of peace with the tribes roaming in the bounds of his grant, which stretched from the Savannah River to the Altamaha. He built forts on the site of Augusta, and on Cumberland and Amelia Islands, to strengthen his position. Encouraged by Oglethorpe, a band of people who, under the leadership of Baron von Reck and Martin Bolsius, had walked from Salzburg, in the valley of the Inn, to Rotterdam, in Holland, landed at Savannah, in 1734. They soon chose a site for their town, and gave it the name of "Ebenezer," because, as they devoutly declared, "God had helped them so far." They were shortly followed by great numbers of Moravians and Scotch Highlanders.[1]

James Oglethorpe

[1] John Wesley, the founder of Methodism, resided for some time in Georgia. Whitefield, the greatest of field preachers, was also a citizen of the colony, and founded at Savannah an orphan's asylum which still exists. He is said to have exhorted at least 60,000 people at some of his open-air meetings.

108. Conflicts with Spaniards. *Siege of St. Augustine.* Seeing that a conflict with the Spaniards in Florida was inevitable, Oglethorpe returned to England, and having raised a regiment there, brought it over to the colony. After receiving reënforcements from the militia of Georgia and South Carolina, he marched, in 1740, against St. Augustine, but was compelled to abandon the siege. Two years later, in retaliation, the Spaniards sent a large expedition against St. Simon Island, off the coast of Georgia. The fort there was soon captured, but a detachment of Spanish troops which had stolen through the woods to seize Frederica was forced by Oglethorpe to surrender at a place since known as Bloody Marsh.

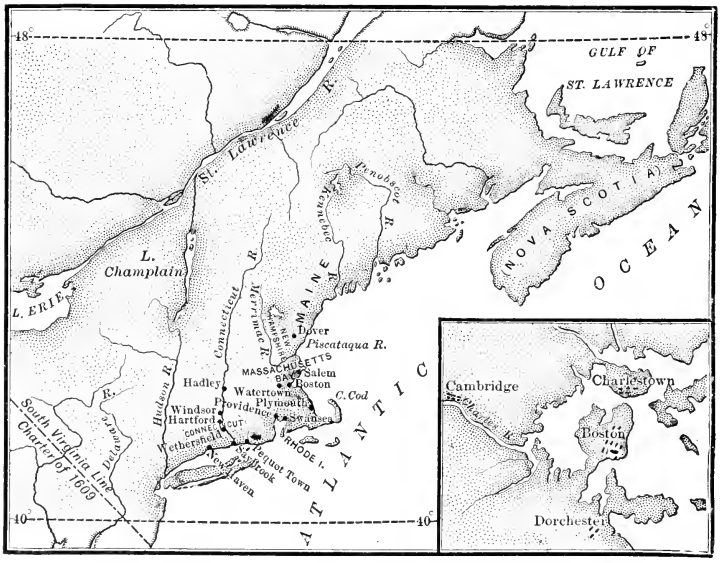
109. *Flight of the Spaniards.* By a stratagem Oglethorp gave the Spanish commander the impression that he was looking for the arrival of six British men-of-war, with two thousand troops, from Carolina. Thrown into a state of perplexity, the Spaniards, sighting three ships from Carolina, at once supposed the expected aid had come for Oglethorpe. In great haste they destroyed the fort and fled, leaving behind their cannon and stores.

110. Rum and Slaves. The general control of the affairs of the colony was in the hands of a Board of Trustees residing in England. One of the regulations adopted by this board forbade the importation of rum, and another prohibited the use of slaves. These rules, in narrowing the opportunities for an exchange of products, injured the prosperity of the colony.[1] It was not until 1740 that Georgia became self-supporting; but ten years later its population did not exceed five thousand.

[1] But for this law Georgia would have easily found a market in the West Indies for its lumber, which could have been exchanged for either rum or slaves.

New England Colonies — Massachusetts

111. Plymouth Company. In the same year that Jamestown was founded the Plymouth Company established a colony on the Kennebec River, but the settlers, after enduring for twelve months the hardships of the climate, went back to England. John Smith explored the coast seven years later, drew a map of it, and named the country "New England." So glowing



New England by the Patent of 1620 — Vicinity of Boston

was his account of its natural advantages that the Plymouth Company, now known as the Council for New England (1620), determined to make another effort to occupy it and obtained a new patent from the king granting it all the land in America between the parallels of 40° and 48°. Before, however, they were ready to send out settlers, a colony had been planted

there by a little company of intrepid Englishmen known from their wanderings as the Pilgrim Fathers, who were seeking a land where they could worship in freedom under the English flag.

112. A Colony of Separatists. *Schism in Church of England.* After the Church of England had by the Reformation become a Protestant church, there were a large number of peo-

Landing of the Pilgrims

ple, known as Puritans, who wished to purge it of all traces of resemblance to the Roman Catholic Church, both in doctrine and in ceremony. One section of these people were anxious to bring about the change without leaving the Church of England. The other section, the Separatists, abandoned that church, as the only way of securing for themselves the power to worship as they chose.

113. *Voyage of "Mayflower."* James I declared he would make the Puritans conform to the Church of England, or "harry them out of the land." At Scrooby, in the east of England, a congregation of Separatists were in the habit of meeting at the house of William Brewster. Worn out at last by persecution, they emigrated in a body to Holland, but, shrinking from the certainty that their children would lose their English habits and speech in that country, they asked the London Company for permission to settle on the coast of New Jersey, then a part of Virginia. This was readily granted. Setting sail from Plymouth on the *Mayflower* under the leadership of Brewster, Bradford, and Miles Standish, they were driven far to the north, and on the 11th of December, 1620, they landed in a region belonging, not to the London, but to the Plymouth Company. They retained the name of Plymouth, which Smith's map had already given to their place of settlement. The little company numbered only one hundred and two.

114. *First Years in the Colony.* Some months after they had landed, an Indian walked into the village and saluted them in broken English. This was Samoset, who had learned a few words from the English who had visited the coast. The next day he brought with him another Indian named Squanto, who had been taken to England. Squanto taught the settlers how to plant corn and was their interpreter in making a treaty with Massasoit, the chief of a neighboring tribe. Before the end of the first year, one half of the population had died, and although new emigrants arrived from time to time the growth of the colony was very slow. The spirit of the colonists, however, was not daunted by a harsh climate, unfruitful soil, or the veiled threats of the Indians. On one occasion Canon'icus, the chief of the Narragansetts, sent Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows wrapped in a rattlesnake skin.

Bradford's only notice of this act of defiance was to send back the skin full of powder and shot.

115. A Colony of the Puritans. *Grant on Massachusetts Bay.* Charles I, wishing to rule England by his single will, dismissed Parliament and levied taxes without its authority. He also encouraged Archbishop Laud's unwise attempt to restore Roman Catholic ceremonials in the Church of England. Revolting against this policy, a large body of the Puritans decided to emigrate to America, and with this intention they acquired, in 1628, from the Council of New England, a grant of territory lying on and between Merrimac and Charles rivers. The next step was to secure a charter (1629) giving them all the rights of a self-governing corporation.

116. *Salem and Boston.* The first colony of the Puritans was planted, in 1628, at Salem, by John Endicott, a man who so detested all that reminded him of the Cavaliers, the followers of Charles I, that he ordered the cross to be cut out of his English flag, all women under his rule to wear veils, and all men to trim their hair short. In 1630 John Winthrop, the first governor, a man of good birth, large fortune, and high character, arrived with a fleet of vessels, which brought over nearly 1000 new settlers. Fifteen hundred more followed in the same year, and Boston and other towns were founded.

Costumes of the Puritans

117. *All political power* in the Plymouth Colony was at first in the hands of the men who signed the plan of administration for the colony. This was drawn up on board of the

Mayflower, when it was found that the ship would make the land north of Virginia, in a region where there was no established government. By 1638, however, the number of settlers having increased, the system of electing representatives was adopted. Such a system now prevailed in the Massachusetts Bay Colony, where at first all power was in the hands of the stockholders of the Massachusetts Bay Company. Only members of the Puritan or Congregational church could vote.

118. A Theocracy. In the beginning, each of the townships into which the settlements in Massachusetts were divided had a single church edifice, and in this building all civil as well as religious business was transacted. As only church members could vote, the ministers had an extraordinary influence, even in civil affairs. It was not long before the colony grew to be a theocracy, in which to build houses of worship, preach the gospel, and build religious schools came to be of the first importance.

119. Harvard College Founded. In 1636 the General Assembly, or General Court, as it was termed, of Massachusetts Bay Colony, set aside $2000 for establishing a college at Cambridge, and a short time afterwards Rev. John Harvard, whose name it took, bequeathed to it his library and a considerable sum of money.

New England Colonies — Rhode Island

120. Rev. Roger Williams, of Salem, who disapproved of the extreme religious spirit in the Massachusetts Colony, declared, in 1636, that all religious beliefs should be tolerated, and that the affairs of Church and State should be kept entirely separate. This and other opinions he held were thought to be so dangerous by the Puritan clergymen and magistrates, that he was ordered to return to England, but instead of doing this, he

plunged alone into the wilderness and found his way to the country of the Narragansetts. Canonicus, the chief of that nation, granted him a tract of land, and here, in 1636, he began a settlement which he named "Providence," in the hope that it would be a shelter for all persecuted for their religious belief. Here all citizens, whether church members or not, were to have equal rights before the law.

Roger Williams and the Indians

121. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson. In the year of Williams's banishment, Mrs Anne Hutchinson was also compelled to leave Massachusetts for opinion's sake. She sat down on Aquidneck Island, known also as Roodt Eyland, or Red Island. Her colony was called Portsmouth. Newport was founded a little later by other exiles. In 1644 these colonies were united under a charter, as Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. This charter was obtained by Williams, who visited England for the purpose, and was very liberal in its provisions.

New England Colonies — Connecticut

122. Settlements in Connecticut Valley. The fertile lands along the Connecticut River offered a tempting site for a colony. At an early date, the Dutch built a trading post at Hartford, and the English, at Windsor. In the autumn of 1635 a body of settlers left Cambridge, and made their way to the valley, driving their cattle before them through the snow. After arriving, many perished from cold and famine; many, who moved on toward the seacoast, were lost in the depths of the frozen forest. In the spring, one hundred persons, under Thomas Hooker, joined the colony, and together they founded the towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield. These settlements increased and came to be known as the Connecticut Colony. In 1639 they were united under the first constitution ever written in America, which was further remarkable for abolishing the religious test as a qualification for suffrage. In the meanwhile, a colony, known as Saybrook, had been planted by John Winthrop, near the mouth of the Connecticut River. This was at first governed by proprietors, but was afterwards sold to the Connecticut Colony.

123. The colony of New Haven was founded, in 1638, by John Davenport, a Puritan clergyman, and Theophilus Eaton, a wealthy merchant of London. Before two years passed, settlements had been made at Milford, Guilford, and Stamford, together known by the name of the parent colony. The Bible was the only code of laws in operation. No trial by jury was allowed, because Moses had not sanctioned it. Only church members could cast a vote. It was not until 1662 that the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut were united under a common charter.

124. The Pequot Indians, in 1636, began hostilities with the colonists by cutting off stragglers and settlers on the frontiers.

But for the influence of the noble-minded Roger Williams (§ 120) the Narragansetts and Mohegans would have joined the Pequots. At the solicitation of the Massachusetts authorities, who had treated him so harshly, he crossed Narragansett Bay at the risk of his life, and persuaded Canonicus to send the Pequot envoys away disappointed. But in the winter of 1636–1637 the towns of Connecticut were kept in constant alarm by the attacks of the Pequots. To stop these atrocities, Captain John Mason, with a band of whites and friendly Indians, stole through the woods to their stockaded fort, in the spring of 1637, and succeeded in darting through the gates and setting fire to the wigwams. Retreating in haste, they shot the savages down as they, in their attempt to escape the flames, scrambled over the palisade in the brilliant light. Of the seven hundred Indians in the fort only five escaped, and the Pequot nation was wiped out of existence. The blow was decisive, and for thirty-eight years thereafter there was peace between the white men and the Indians of New England.

New England Colonies — New Hampshire

125. Mason and Gorges. The earliest settlements in New Hampshire were made in the region known as Laconia, between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers, which had been granted (1622) to Mason and Gorges (gor'jĕz) by the Council for New England. They were mere fishing stations on the Piscat'aqua River, at the sites of the modern cities of Dover and Portsmouth. When the Massachusetts Bay Company was formed, as the Laconia patent had expired, Mason obtained a grant of the country lying west of the Piscataqua River, which he named "New Hampshire," after his native county in England; while Gorges acquired title to the country lying east. To this, he gave the name "Maine"; that is to say, "Mainland," to distinguish it from the islands studding the coast. In the

end (1677), Massachusetts purchased this region from the heirs of Gorges for $6000. It was not until 1820 that Maine became a separate community.

126. New Hampshire united with Massachusetts. In 1641–1643 the settlements on or near the Piscataqua were annexed to Massachusetts. But the Mason heirs renewed their claims to New Hampshire, in England; and a long dispute ensued, as a result of which the king in 1679 erected New Hampshire into a separate royal province. In 1685 it was reunited with Massachusetts.

New England Confederation

127. Political and Commercial Affairs. *Board of Commissioners.* There were enemies on all sides of the New England colonists. The French were on the north, the Dutch on the west, and the Indians in their midst. This led, in 1643, to the formation of a confederation for mutual defense. Rhode Island alone was not admitted, because its claim to independence was not acknowledged, and there was still feeling against its people. A board of commissioners, two from each colony, were appointed, with authority to settle any dispute between the colonies and call out troops in case of need. Each colony, however, retained the management of its internal affairs, and no colony could be bound by the acts of the commissioners without its sanction.

128. *The chief exports* of New England were grain, lumber, and salted fish. These commodities were exchanged for the sugar, molasses, and spirits of the West Indies. The sugar was carried to England and sold; the molasses was brought to New England and there converted into rum. This rum was exported to Africa, and there exchanged for slaves and other products, which found a ready market in the English, Dutch, and Spanish colonies. The English Navigation Acts

would have seriously interfered with the freedom of this widely extended trade if they had been strictly observed, but down to the Revolution they were openly evaded by the people of New England.

129. Religious Persecution and Witchcraft. *The Quakers* were bitterly persecuted in all the colonies, as dangerous to government and society, on account of their peculiar beliefs, but their treatment was especially severe in all the colonies of New England, except Rhode Island (§ 120). This sect thought that no special deference was due to persons in authority; and that it was wrong to take an oath, even the oath of allegiance to the king. It condemned war as always unjustifiable. In Massachusetts a Quaker who persisted in returning after banishment was first flogged, then his ears were cut off and his tongue cut out, and finally he was condemned to death. A number of Quakers were hanged in Boston, but after a while public opinion opposed such cruelty, and Quakers were for a time only fined, imprisoned, or whipped, until at length all persecution ceased.

A Quaker Trial

130. *Belief in witchcraft* prevailed everywhere in these times, but in Massachusetts it was undoubtedly aggravated

by the somber religious spirit of the Puritans. The supposed witch was generally a decrepit old woman, living alone, who was thought to have the power to ride through the air at night on a broomstick. In 1692 Salem became the scene of an extraordinary panic. Many persons suspected of witchcraft were thrown into jail, and a special court met for their trial. The delusion did not pass away until about twenty innocent people had perished on the gallows.

General Goffe saves Hadley

131. King Philip's War. *Alexander, the chief of the Wampanoags,* was arrested by the Plymouth magistrates, and on his way home he died of fever. His brother Philip, who succeeded him in 1662, suspected that he had been poisoned by the English; but knowing the strength of the whites, was reluctant to go to war. In 1675, however, as the citizens of Swansea were returning from church they were set upon by a band of his warriors without his authority, and nine of their number were murdered. Philip, though he wept when he

heard of the massacre, threw himself ardently into the contest and soon formed a league of the chief tribes of New England.

132. *Regicide Goffe.* They attacked Deerfield and Hadley on the Connecticut River, and other towns in Massachusetts. Hadley was saved by an old man with a long, snowy beard, who appeared in a strange dress, sword in hand, to rally the whites and drive back the savages. This is supposed to have been Goffe, one of the judges who had sentenced Charles I to death, and who had taken refuge in New England after the Restoration. He returned unobserved to his hiding place, and the people believed an angel had come to their deliverance.

133. *The Narragansetts* having joined Philip, the whites burst into their palisaded fort near the modern Kingston, and slew one thousand of their warriors. At last Philip found himself deserted. "My heart breaks," he exclaimed; "I am ready to die." He was shot down, in trying to steal out of a swamp. During this war, twelve towns were destroyed.

134. Struggle over the Charters. *Sir Edmund Andros* was appointed by James II governor of all the New England colonies in 1686, with instructions to revoke the liberal charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island. The charter of Massachusetts had already been annulled (1684) because its people refused to observe the Navigation Act, a course which would have been destructive of their foreign trade, on which their welfare depended. Not long after Andros arrived, he came to Hartford and ordered the Assembly, then in session, to deliver up the charter of the colony. The document was brought into the assembly hall at night and laid on the table. Suddenly the candles went out, and when they were relighted, it was found that the charter had disappeared. According to tradition, the original charter was hidden in the hollow of an ancient oak. When James II was deposed, Andros was arrested for his course as governor, and put in jail.

135. *Charters Restored.* Under the liberal government of William and Mary, the successors of James II, the charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were restored. In 1691 a new charter was drawn for Massachusetts, which provided that the crown should appoint the governor, and the people elect the Council. All Protestants were allowed to vote and hold office. This ended the separate existence of the Plymouth Colony, and made it, as well as Maine, a part of Massachusetts.

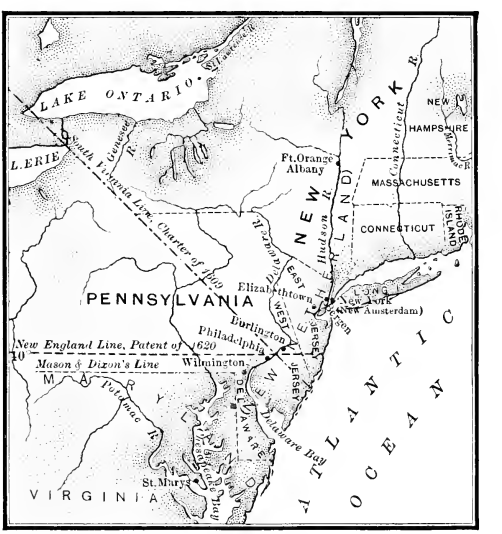
Middle Colonies — New York

136. Settled by the Dutch. *New Netherland.* In 1609 Hudson River was entered by Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, who was searching the coast for a northwestern passage to Asia (§ 65). As he sailed up the broad stream, he thought he had found a strait leading to the Indian Ocean. A few years later (1613–1614), the Dutch built huts on Manhattan Island, at the mouth of the Hudson, and also a fort for the protection of those engaged in the fur trade. In 1614 they erected a fort near the present site of Albany for the same purpose. They called the country New Netherland. The English declined to acknowledge the right of the Dutch to the country, on the ground that the voyages of the Cabots (§ 30) had given them the superior claim, and they sent Captain Argall to capture the new settlement on Manhattan Island and force the people to submit to the English government.

137. *The Patroons.* Argall having sailed away, New Netherland quietly returned to its Dutch allegiance. In 1621 the Dutch West India Company was created, with full political and commercial power over New Netherland, and it at once began to send out companies of emigrants who settled at different places. Grants of territory, sixteen miles wide and many miles in length, were, in 1629, made to any one who

would plant a colony of fifty persons in the wilderness along the Hudson. Such was the origin of the patroonships. These lands were cleared and tilled by tenants, at a small rental, in return for their free transportation across the ocean. The Dutch adopted the policy of buying the soil from the Indians. Manhattan Island, which later on became the site of the city of New York, was purchased with twenty-four dollars' worth of scarlet cloth and brass buttons and ribbons.

138. *The first representative body* assembling in New Amsterdam was a committee of twelve, which came together in 1642, in order to pacify the neighboring Indians, who were threatening to rise. The cry for popular election grew so loud a few years later, when Peter Stuyvesant, a brave, irascible, one-legged soldier, was governor, that he was forced to allow a popular convention to meet, though he refused to assent to its petitions. It was not until English rule began that a regular assembly of the people was held (1684), but a few years later this was forbidden.



The Middle Colonies

139. Under English Dominion. *Grant to Duke of York.* The English had never given up their claim to New Nether-

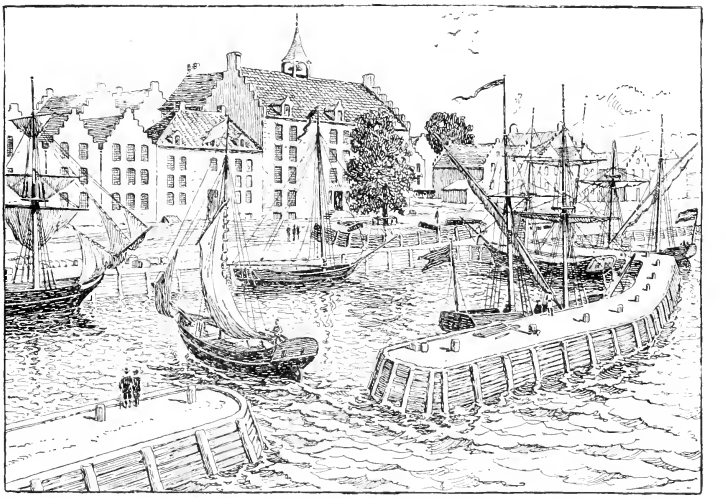
land. As long as the Dutch held it, the English colonies in the South and the North were cut off from each other, except by sea. In 1664 Charles II granted to his brother, the Duke of York, afterward James II, the whole of the region lying between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. In August of that year an English fleet anchored in the harbor of New Amsterdam and compelled the town to surrender. The name of the place was changed to New York.

140. *Jacob Leisler.* When James II was deposed, Jacob Leisler (līs'ler), a merchant and captain of militia, called together a band of men who swore that they would against all assaults hold the fort for William and Mary, to whose occupation of the throne there was strong opposition in the colony. He at once assumed control of affairs with the support of the democracy. A governor was sent out from England. When his lieutenant, who had arrived first, tried to force his way into the fort, it was resisted by Leisler, who doubted the lieutenant's authority, and several soldiers were killed. For this act, Leisler was tried and convicted of treason. The new governor, Sloughter (slaw'ter), was reluctant to sign the death warrant. Invited to dinner by certain enemies of Leisler, he was made drunk, and in that condition he put his hand to the fatal document. Leisler was hurried to execution before the governor could return to his sober senses.

141. *Captain Kidd.* In 1695 many pirates infested the seas off the American coasts. In order to destroy or drive them away, the governor of New York, Lord Bellomont, while still a private citizen, had formed a company for the purchase of a ship, which was put under the command of William Kidd, a merchant of New York. Kidd sailed away, but instead of becoming a scourge to the pirates, turned out to be one of the most daring and successful of these outlaws himself. He was believed to have buried great quantities of treasure along

the Long Island coast. He was arrested in Boston and sent to England, where he was tried and hanged.

142. *New York in 1697.* In 1697 the population of New York City was about 4300. One third of the people were African slaves. The settled portions of the colony consisted



New York in 1697 (City Hall and Great Dock)

of a narrow strip of land lying on either side of the Hudson River, extending on the west a little beyond Albany. West of this the country was occupied by the Iroquois.

Middle Colonies — New Jersey

143. The First Settlers. New Jersey, which was at first embraced in the region of New Netherland, owes its name to the fact that Sir George Carteret, to whom and Lord Berkeley the Duke of York, in 1664, conveyed the territory, had won great distinction in the defense of the island of Jersey in the English Channel. Early in the seventeenth century the

Swedes and Dutch had planted colonies on the Delaware River. A band of Puritans were the first English settlers to come in; they established a settlement at Elizabethtown in 1664, and here, in 1668, the first legislature met.

144. Carteret, in a series of "Concessions," gave the General Assembly the exclusive right to collect taxes in East Jersey, and guaranteed perfect liberty of conscience. Berkeley soon sold West Jersey to two Quakers, one of whom becoming a bankrupt, his part fell into the hands of William Penn, as trustee. In 1676 Penn and his associates acquired Carteret's rights in East Jersey. In 1702 East and West Jersey were united into one province, under the direct control of the crown; but for thirty-six years longer it had a governor in common with New York.

Middle Colonies — Pennsylvania

145. William Penn and the Quakers. The founder of Pennsylvania was William Penn, a member of the Society of Quakers, a sect opposed to war and slavery and all frivolities and cruel sports. Penn had joined the Society when at college, and in spite of the threats of his father, Admiral Penn, had remained true to its doctrines. He became interested in securing a refuge for the persecuted Quakers in the American wilderness. The English government was in debt to him to the extent of 16,000 pounds, and in payment Penn received a grant to nearly all the territory in the boundaries of the modern Pennsylvania, a name given to the colony partly (Penn) by the king, and partly (sylvania) by himself.

William Penn

146. The Earliest Settlers of Pennsylvania were the Swedes. In 1655 they were subdued by the Dutch, and after this, a number of Dutch came in permanently; and these were followed by the English as soon as the Duke of York took possession of the country as a part of New Netherland. Penn wrote to his future subjects: "You shall be governed by laws of your own making." He himself arrived in the province in 1682, and at Shackamaxon, near Philadelphia, under a noble elm, entered into a treaty with the Indians, which brought about a lasting peace. For many years no Quaker of Pennsylvania perished at the hands of the Indians. "We will live," they said, "in love with William Penn and his children as long as the moon and sun shall endure."

147. Philadelphia Founded. In 1683 Penn chose a site for a new city on the north side of the Schuylkill River, and here he laid off broad streets, with spaces for gardens, so as to form "a green country town." He named it Philadelphia — City of Brotherly Love — and gave the streets the names of the trees in the surrounding forests — walnut, chestnut, locust, pine, etc. At the end of two years the town had 2000 people. At the time of the Revolution Philadelphia was the first city in America in social celebrity as well as in population.

148. Germantown was founded in 1683 by colonists from Germany, the advance guard of the sturdy people who poured into Pennsylvania, and spread as far as Virginia and North Carolina. It was Pastorius, the principal citizen of Germantown, who offered a protest against buying and selling slaves — the first public act of the kind in the history of America.

149. Charter of Privileges. Penn ratified the Charter of Privileges, which had been framed by the people. It provided that no one should be molested for his religious opinions, and that every one believing in the divinity of Christ could hold

office. The people had the right to elect an Assembly, but the proprietary could veto laws he did not approve.

150. In his last years, Penn, owing to his large expenditures on account of his province, fell into debt, was arrested, and imprisoned. He died in 1718. The proprietary interest of his family in Pennsylvania continued until the Revolution, when it passed to the commonwealth on the payment of $570,000.[1]

Middle Colonies — Delaware

151. The Swedes. Delaware derived its name from that of the great bay, which had been named for Lord Delaware, one of the early governors of Virginia. The first settlement by the Dutch was destroyed by the Indians. In 1638 a body of emigrants from Sweden landed near the site of the modern Wilmington, and in memory of their native land called the country New Sweden. The new colony was known as Christiana, and it grew rapidly in prosperity.

152. Subject to Pennsylvania. In 1651 the Dutch, who claimed the country, though it was really in the bounds of the Maryland patent, built a fort near Christiana; but the Swedes attacked it and drove the garrison out. In a short time (1655) an army of six hundred men arrived from New Amsterdam to avenge the insult and force the Swedes to submit to Dutch rule. In 1664 the country passed into the hands of the Duke of York, under his grant from Charles II. After 1682 Delaware, now known as the "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware," though it had an Assembly of its own, was subject to the proprietary of Pennsylvania, who had bought it from the Duke of York, in order to secure a seacoast for his colony. It was not until the Revolution that it acquired a separate government.

[1] A difficulty arose between Maryland and Pennsylvania as to their true boundary line. This was settled by a survey (1763–1767), known as Mason and Dixon's Line, from the names of the two surveyors. This line became of national celebrity at a later day, as dividing the slave from the free states.

Social and Economic Condition of the Colonies

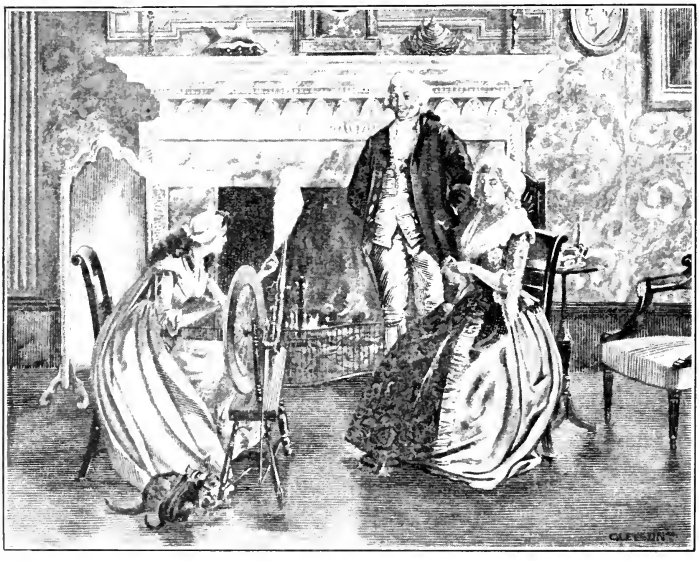
153. The Population. At the close of the period ending in 1754 the social and economic condition of each of the colonies was plainly determined. In that year the total population was about 1,428,000, distributed as follows: in the South, 609,000; in New England, 439,000; in the Middle Colonies, 380,000. The principal stock was English or Scotch, but in some of the colonies other strains were powerful enough to have a far-reaching influence, such as the Dutch in New York, the Huguenots in South Carolina, the Germans in Pennsylvania.

154. Southern Colonies. *The Great Staples.* In the Southern colonies the people were entirely given up to the cultivation of great staples, like tobacco, rice, and indigo. The plantations were generally very large; the landowners, lived widely apart, and relied upon their estates to supply most of their wants. Shipping their crops to the English market, they obtained there the goods, such as hardware, glass, crockery, furniture, utensils, and wine, which they could not produce themselves. There were no large cities, in spite of many legislative attempts to increase their growth. The largest was Charleston, with a population of about 15,000.

155. *Ownership in vast tracts* of land had the tendency to create an aristocratic class in the Southern colonies by nourishing the sense of personal importance and independence. This feeling was increased by the possession of many slaves, who did most of the work of the large plantations. Their only assistants were "indented servants" or "redemptioners." These were persons who had come out from England under a written contract to "serve" for a certain number of years, in return for food, clothes, and lodging. Many of these servants, however, had been kidnapped, or were transported criminals.

156. *Life on widely separated plantations* encouraged

habits of lavish hospitality. The presence of kinsmen, friends, and even strangers as guests, varied the monotony of the planters' lives. Their residences were spacious, supplies were abundant, servants were numerous. The planters rarely left home except to visit relations, or to spend a few weeks in the colonial capital. They drove thither in their coaches and four;



In a Virginia Home

and in the balls and races which enlivened the brief season they took the leading part.

157. *The Large Planters.* The large planters made festivals of their family anniversaries, and celebrated the numerous holidays, especially Christmas, with all the heartiness and gayety of their English forefathers. The walls of their houses were adorned with family portraits, and their sideboards shone with silver plate, while the rooms were filled with imported

furniture of the latest English patterns. They had blooded horses in their stables, and dogs of the finest breeds in their kennels. It was the old English life of their ancestors and kinsmen across the water, which had been transplanted to the banks of the Severn, James, and Rappahannock.

158. *The Small Planters.* Below this class of large planters in the South there was a class of small landowners, who, while lacking the means to live on the same abundant footing, were independent in their circumstances and formed a body of men of many fine qualities. They were the owners of a few slaves, and in many cases aided in the cultivation of their own fields. There was another class, known as the "poor whites," who either were without any property, or if they owned any part of the soil, resided on a few acres lying on the barren ridges, where they gained a scanty subsistence.

159. *Religion.* The most powerful religious influence at work in the Southern colonies was that of the Church of England, which was supported by the local government. The clergymen, as a rule, were brought from the mother country and did much to confirm the sympathy of the people with the English Church and strengthen their loyalty to the crown. There were influential dissenters, however, like the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians in Virginia and North Carolina, the Roman Catholics in Maryland, the Methodists and Baptists in Georgia.

160. *Southern Schools.* As the population of the South, owing to the size of the plantations, was sparse and scattered, popular education did not take deep root there. There were, however, numerous schools. Several free schools were in existence in Virginia and Maryland as early as the seventeenth century; and there were many private libraries in these colonies from an equally early date. The children of the wealthy planters were educated, as a rule, by tutors, but many were

sent to English universities. In Virginia, William and Mary College, founded in 1693, offered advantages of instruction equal to any to be obtained in America. The number of authors was small, but in William Byrd, the Southern colonies possessed at least one of a high degree of merit.

161. New England Colonies. *The Disposition to concentrate.* The New England township was made up of many small shares of land owned by families who had built their houses close together in the form of a village. The disposition of the New England colonists was to concentrate, because (1) the people, for the most part, had, in the beginning, come over from England in religious congregations, each led by its minister, and settled in one spot, like a swarm of bees; (2) the fact that the Indians were more persistently hostile there than elsewhere, forced each community to collect its strength as much as possible; (3) as the soil was thin and stony, and the climate harsh, the region was not adapted to those products which alone made large landholdings profitable.

162. *The Principal Crops.* Hay, grain, vegetables, and flax were the principal crops. Unlike rice and tobacco, they required little labor beyond what the members of the owners' families could furnish; and, in consequence, there was no room for many slaves in the New England colonies. As the forests were extraordinarily fine, the people soon came to be shipbuilders on a large scale. In their homemade vessels, they plowed the Greenland waters for whales, and hovered over the Banks of Newfoundland for cod, and found each to be a source of great profit. They soon became the principal carriers by sea for the other colonies. Boston alone owned six hundred ships engaged in the foreign trade, and one thousand in the fisheries and the coast trade. The only manufactures in New England, as elsewhere in the colonies, were homemade, as the English government actively discouraged them.

163. *The social life* of the people of New England was marked by much that was stern and austere. The use of gold or silver ornaments and lace was forbidden, except to persons of large estates; the people refused to recognize the immemorial holidays and feast days of their ancestors; only persons of the best condition were addressed as Mr. or Mrs., the general form of address being Goodman, or Goodwife; the ceremony of marriage was performed by a civil magistrate; and the chief social amusements were house raisings, and husking and quilting parties.

164. *Religious Duties.* The law was very active in enforcing the performance of religious duties. In the early colonial age the people were summoned to church by the beating of a drum, and marched thither in military order. The members were seated according to their official dignity, the elders and deacons in front, with rows of men on one side behind them, and rows of women on the other side. The children, servants, and slaves were still farther in the rear. No instrumental music was allowed.

165. *Popular Education.* The interest which the New England people felt in popular education was an admirable part of their character. The town system, by concentrating their population, made a public school system possible at an early date. In 1647 every town in Massachusetts was required to establish a free school; and if its population exceeded one hundred families, a grammar school also. Harvard College was founded in 1636; Yale in 1701; Rhode Island College (Brown University) in 1764; and Dartmouth in 1769. In 1639 a printing press was set up in Cambridge. The first permanent newspaper in America was begun in Boston in 1704. The Bible, sermons, and almanacs were the most popular literature. Edwards's "On the Freedom of the Will" was one of the greatest books produced in the colonies.

166. The Middle Colonies. *Pursuits of the People.* The people of the Middle colonies, being rather mixed in their origin, were distinguished by unusual diversity of pursuits. They not only followed agriculture, like the Southern colonists, but also were as deeply engaged in trade as the colonists of New England, and, to an even greater degree, in manufacture. Flour as well as grain was exported. Glass and paper were made, and the iron industry had reached proportions of importance. In Philadelphia the professions of law and medicine had already won a high reputation.

167. *The Patroons.* In the colony of New York alone there was to be found a class like the great landowners of the Southern communities. These were the patroons, who lived in fine mansions, surrounded by numerous tenants, servants, and slaves. Here and there, in the other Middle colonies, a landed gentry of some importance existed, but social equality was the rule in all their other communities.

168. *The Dutch colonists* of New York, though lovers of home, were fond of holidays and festivals and the pleasures of life as far as their means permitted. In Pennsylvania the Quakers gave a severe character to social habits; their amusements did not go beyond a house raising, husking, or cider pressing. In all the Middle colonies slaves were numerous. At one time they were suspected of a plot to burn the town of New York; and for this supposed offense several were hanged or burned at the stake.

169. *Schools.* The Dutch established a large number of free schools during the period of their supremacy in New York, but these schools were sustained with little spirit by the English after their rule began. There were none in Pennsylvania until 1689, when a free school was started in Philadelphia by the Quakers. The number of private schools was small. New Jersey had a few free schools. In 1746 a college was founded at

Princeton, New Jersey, by the Presbyterians, and in 1754 King's College (Columbia) was founded in New York by the Episcopalians. The College of Pennsylvania was founded in 1751.

Means of Communication and Forms of Government

170. Means of Transportation. Owing to the great distance separating the different groups of colonies, there was little intercourse between them. There was no system of good roads uniting the colonies, even of the same group. If any one wished to go from New York to Philadelphia, he either walked, rode on horseback, or went in a sailing sloop down the Jersey coast, and then up the Delaware River. The quickest route to Boston, in the North, or Williamsburg or Charleston, in the South, was by sea. It was not until 1744 that the first stage line was established between Providence and Boston. In 1756 a stage was run twice a week between New York and Philadelphia. There was no stagecoach in the South in colonial times.

The Postal Service in 1700

171. Colonial Post Office. When the public officers had occasion to send a packet of letters, they gave the bearer authority to impress relays of horses, and also men and boats, if necessary. Sometimes such packets were marked for the "public service," and then each planter or farmer on the

line of its passage was required to forward it to his next neighbor, and so on in turn. In 1692 the office of deputy postmaster-general for America was created by authority of Great Britain. It was chiefly due to the energy and sagacity of Benjamin Franklin the deputy postmaster-general, that the general post became as useful as it was. There were, however, even under his management, not more than three mails a week between the larger cities. Between New York and Boston mail was sent out only twice a week. The letters were carried by a post rider on horseback, who was required to cover thirty miles a day. Once a month a packet boat left New York for England.

172. The Forms of Government. If we look at the manner in which they were governed, the colonies can be divided into three groups; namely, (1) the charter, (2) the proprietary, and (3) the royal or provincial. The charter colonies were Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. Their charters were really contracts between the king and the colonists, and could only be revoked by mutual consent, provided that the colonists had not been guilty of some breach of the terms, which gave the king the right to annul the original agreement by due process of law. It was under these circumstances that the charters of Virginia, at first a charter colony, and Massachusetts were, in 1624 and 1684, respectively, recalled. The proprietary colonies were Delaware, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. The proprietaries themselves were really subject kings, who had the power to grant land patents, to set up a regular administration, and to name the governors. The royal or provincial colonies were New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The king appointed the heads of these colonies and gave special instructions as to how their affairs were to be carried on.

173. The Legislature. Every colony had an assembly of its own, composed of two branches: the Upper, corresponding to the modern Senate, consisted of the members of the Council; the Lower, corresponding to the modern House of Representatives, consisted of members elected by those among the people who were qualified to vote by the fact that they were landowners, taxpayers, and, in some colonies, also church communicants. The acts of Assembly could become laws only if they had received the approval, first of the governor, and lastly, in most cases, of the king. The king reserved the power to veto the acts of all the colonies, except Maryland, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, which were specially exempted by the terms of their charters.

174. The Governor. It was only in Rhode Island and Connecticut that the people elected the governor. In the other colonies, but for the fact that his salary depended upon a vote of the Assembly, he would have been entirely independent, in his official conduct, of popular favor. As the representative of the king or proprietary the governor alone could call the Assembly together, and he could dissolve it by a stroke of his pen. He was commander in chief of the militia, and as such named all the military officers. He also appointed the judges.

175. Board of Trade. In order to relieve the king of the burden of following the affairs of the colonies in detail, a Board of Trade and Plantations was created in 1696, which, in the royal name, instructed the colonial governors as to their duties; received reports from them; reviewed the colonial laws; and recommended the king to accept or disallow these laws, as seemed advisable. In other words, the members of the Board acted as the king's advisers and also as his agents. Parliament, previous to the death of Charles I, had no part in colonial rule. In the time of the Commonwealth, however, it passed laws respecting the colonial trade and other colonial

interests, and this power it never again entirely gave up, even after the monarchy was restored in England. When, at the beginning of the American Revolution, the colonists declared that Parliament had no right to impose a tax on them, they were thinking of the time, before Cromwell became Protector of England, when the king alone had a right to interfere in their affairs.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD II

DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTHERN COLONIES.

- I. Virginia.
  1. The First Expedition.
  2. John Smith.
     1. His Adventures.
     2. Services to the Colony.
  3. Starving Time.
  4. Delaware's and Dale's Administrations.
  5. Pocahontas.
  6. The Charters.
  7. First American Legislature.
  8. Slavery Introduced.
  9. Indian Massacres.
  10. The Cavaliers.
  11. Period of Oppression.
      1. Navigation Acts.
      2. Heavy Taxation.
      3. Religious Persecution.
  12. Bacon's Rebellion.
- II. Maryland.
  1. Why it was first Settled.
  2. Terms of Charter.
  3. Settlement.
  4. Conflict with Claiborne.
  5. Religious Toleration.
  6. Civil Conflicts.
- III. North Carolina.
  1. Settlement.
  2. Proprietary Charter.
  3. Grand Model.
  4. Struggles with Indians.
  5. Immigration.
- IV. South Carolina.
  1. Settlement.
  2. Conflicts with Spaniards.
  3. Indian Wars.
  4. Depredations of Pirates on the Coast.
  5. Arrival of Huguenots.
  6. Rice Planting.
- V. Georgia.
  1. Why it was first Settled.
  2. Savannah.
  3. European Immigrants.
  4. Conflicts with the Spaniards.
  5. Board of Trustees.

NEW ENGLAND COLONIES.

- VI. Massachusetts.
  - 1. Plymouth Colony.
    - 1. Why the Pilgrims left England.
    - 2. Their Landing.
    - 3. Their Early Hardships.
    - 4. Relations with Indians.
  - 2. Massachusetts Bay Colony.
    - 1. A Colony of Puritans.
    - 2. The First Settlements.
    - 3. Civil Government.
    - 4. Harvard College.
- VII. Rhode Island.
  - 1. The Religious Spirit of the Puritans.
  - 2. Roger Williams.
    - 1. His Opinions.
    - 2. His Flight.
    - 3. Settles Providence.
  - 3. Mrs. Hutchinson.
- VIII. Connecticut.
  - 1. First Settlement.
    - 1. By the Dutch.
    - 2. Massachusetts Colonists.
  - 2. The First Written Constitution.
  - 3. New Haven Colony.
  - 4. Pequot War.
- IX. New Hampshire.
  - 1. Mason and Gorges.
  - 2. The First Settlements.
  - 3. Union with Massachusetts.
- X. New England Confederation.
  - 1. Purposes and Limits of Union.
  - 2. Agricultural Products of New England.
  - 3. Religious Persecution and Witchcraft.
  - 4. King Philip's War.
  - 5. Struggle over the Charters.

MIDDLE COLONIES.

- XI. New York.
  - 1 First Settlement.
  - 2. Patroons.
  - 3. Duke of York's Grant and Conquest.
  - 4. Jacob Leisler.
  - 5. Captain Kidd.
- XII. New Jersey.
  - 1. Settlement.
  - 2. Carteret's Concessions.
  - 3. East and West Jersey united.
- XIII. Pennsylvania.
  - 1. Settlement by Swedes, Dutch, and English.
  - 2. William Penn.
  - 3. Treaty with Indians.
  - 4. Philadelphia and Germantown founded.
  - 5. Charter of Privileges.
- XIV. Delaware.
  - 1. Swedish Settlements.
  - 2. Dutch Conquest.
  - 3. Bought by Penn.

COLONIAL LIFE.

- XV. Social and Economic Condition of the Colonies.
  - 1. The Southern Colonies.
  - 2. New England Colonies.
  - 3. The Middle Colonies.
- XVI. Means of Communication.
  - 1. Roads and Stages.
  - 2. Colonial Post Offices.
- XVII. Character of Colonial Civil Government.
  - 1. Charter Governments.
  - 2. Proprietary Governments.
  - 3. Royal Governments.
  - 4. Power of Governors.
  - 5. Board of Trade.

PERIOD III. GROWING UNION OF THE COLONIES

The Lesser French and Indian Wars, 1689–1748

176. Social and Commercial Intercourse. Down to 1754 all the colonies except the United Colonies of New England (§ 127) were separate communities, wholly independent of each other. This was due not only to their having distinct governments, but also to the great distance between them. Social and commercial intercourse, however, had been steadily growing, and when the last French and Indian war began in 1754, all the colonies were sufficiently close together in feeling and interest to act practically as one for their mutual defense. From this time we have to deal with the history of the United Colonies, a history which was to end only when the history of the United States began.

177. French Chain of Forts. By 1754 the French had built a chain of forts from Louisburg, in Cape Breton Island, to Chicagou on the Lakes; from Chicagou to New Orleans and Mobile (map, pp. 102, 103). They claimed a right to all the territory lying on the tributaries of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and in order to hold it, had built inland forts which, like Kaskaskia and Vincennes in the country north of the Ohio, had now become important trading posts.

178. The Struggle for Territory. As the English settlements drew nearer to the western spurs of the Alleghanies, the danger of falling foul of the French posts became more imminent. In 1754 the time had come when English colonization must

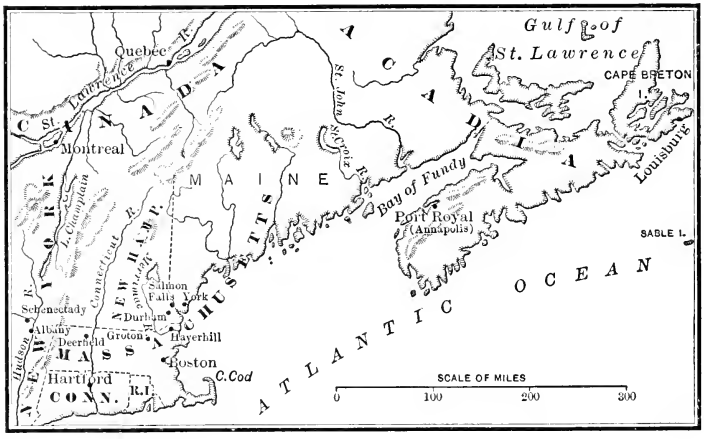
either stop at the crest of these mountains, or the wave must roll over the barrier, and spread far and wide in the fertile regions beyond. It was not long before a mighty struggle began for the supremacy over all the territory west of the Alleghanies — a struggle which was to end in the complete destruction of the French power in North America.

179. An Unavoidable Entanglement. During the sixty years before the final contest opened, the French and the English colonies had come into conflict several times. This had its origin, not in any independent desire of these colonies for local conquest or in quarrels among themselves, but in the unavoidable entanglement of their people in the hostilities going on between the French and English nations in Europe. Hence these wars are known by the names of the English monarchs in whose reigns they occurred.

180. King William's War, 1689–1697. *Capture of Port Royal.* When James II was driven from his throne by William of Orange, he fled to France, where he sought the aid of Louis XIV. Hostilities, which had been carried on by William as the head of a great league against Louis, now broke out between Louis and William as king of England, and spread to the American colonies. There the first campaign of the English was successful. A fleet, with New England troops on board, under the command of Governor Phips of Massachusetts, in 1690, captured Port Royal in Acadia; but on the way to Quebec, a second fleet, also under Phips, suffered a check at the hands of Frontenac, the governor of Canada, and the troops returned to Boston. An overland expedition against Montreal by New York and Connecticut troops also failed.

181. *Indian Massacres.* These expeditions against Canada had been sent out to put a stop to the French and Indian atrocities on the frontier. Early in 1690 a band of French soldiers and Indians had come down in their snowshoes,

through the wintry forests, to Schenectady. So strong was the sense of security in the garrison of the post, that, as a mere form, they had made figures of snow and set them up as sentinels at the gates. Only a few of the inhabitants were able to escape the butchery by flying half naked to Albany. At Salmon Falls and Durham in New Hampshire, at Groton



The Lesser French and Indian Wars

and Haverhill in Massachusetts, and York in Maine,—everywhere the same awful tale of the scalping knife and the torch.[1] The Iroquois, who were friends of the English, were

[1] The attack made, in 1697, on Haverhill, in Massachusetts, will always be memorable for the story of Mrs. Dustin. Her husband was working in the field, while seven of their children were playing at no great distance from him. Suddenly discovering that a band of Indians were in possession of his house, where his wife had been left, with an infant, engaged in her usual duties, he succeeded, with his gun at full cock and in his hands ready for immediate use, in making his way safely to shelter with his children at his side. Mrs. Dustin was carried off, together with a maid and a boy who understood the Indian language. The infant was killed. There were nine warriors and three squaws in the party. When two days out, the boy overheard the savages planning to torture Mrs. Dustin on their arrival at their village. The same night, while the Indians were asleep, the three captives

attacked in their villages in New York, by the French, and their power almost destroyed. The war was closed in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick (rĭz′wick). By this treaty Port Royal was returned to France (§ 180), and no territorial change was made.

182. Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713. *Deerfield.* In the previous war the Iroquois had been outposts for the protection of the New England colonists, but in the next war, which was carried on in the time of Queen Anne of England, with both the French and Spaniards, the treaty of peace that the French had made with these Indians left the New England frontiers open to attack. In 1704 the French and Indians, waiting until the morning watch at Deerfield, in Massachusetts, was deserted by the soldiers, rushed within the palisades, plied the torch to the inflammable wooden houses, and after killing about forty persons, carried off about one hundred.

183. *Expedition against Quebec.* In 1706 the French and Spaniards made an attack on Charleston, but were bravely repulsed (§ 101). In 1710 Port Royal was again seized by the English. In the following year a fleet was sent out from England to capture Quebec and Montreal. The vessels, in a heavy fog, ran upon the rocks in passing up the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and 1000 men lost their lives. The Peace of Utrecht (ū′trĕkt) ended the war in 1713. By the terms of the treaty Acadia (the name of which was now changed to Nova Scotia), Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay region passed finally into the hands of England. Hitherto the French had disputed the English claim to the last two countries.

184. King George's War, 1744–1748. *Capture of Louisburg.* We have already described the events of this war in the South

rose up, and seizing the tomahawks, by a preconcerted arrangement beat out the brains of ten of their enemies. The remaining two escaped death by flight. Mrs. Dustin and her companions then made their way home, where Mrs. Dustin was awarded a bounty of fifty pounds sterling.

L. of C.

(§ 108) in connection with the settlement of Georgia. There the war was waged with the Spaniards. The chief event in the North, where the conflict took place with the French, was the capture of Louisburg, a fortress on Cape Breton Island. The French boasted that it was impregnable. In 1745 a large body of troops from New England attacked the fort, and after a siege of six weeks captured it. When peace was made, in 1748, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (āks lah shah pĕl′), Louisburg was given back to France.

185. *Indian Allies of the French.* In all these wars the French had made the utmost use of their terrible Indian allies. Hardly a single colony was free from the bloody incursions of the savages. All the previous wars had their origin in quarrels between the English and French in Europe, but the great French and Indian War that broke out in 1754 was the result of influences having their principal springs in America. It was the colonists who were now most anxious for the French and their Indian allies to be crushed, and for this purpose they furnished a large body of troops.

The Great French and Indian War, 1754–1763

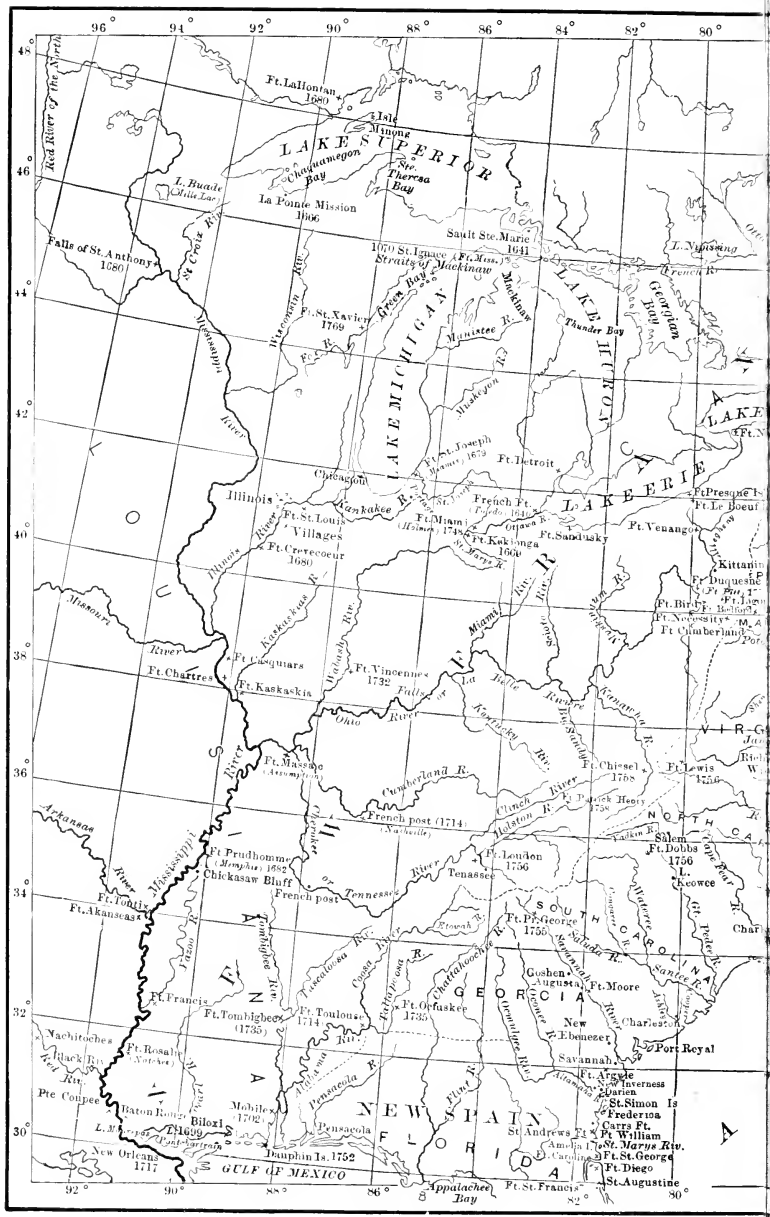
186. Its Causes. *French Posts.* The rapid inroads of the Virginians on the western side of the Alleghanies, about 1749, greatly alarmed the French, and led them to erect a new line of forts, Presque Isle (presk eel′), Le Bœuf (l′bĕf′), and Venan′go, midway between the Alleghanies and the old military posts far to the west (§ 177). The object of this was to close the Ohio River as the only unguarded highway to the valley of the Mississippi. In 1753 a young man just twenty-one years of age, named George Washington, was sent by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia to Le Bœuf to protest against the French intruding on soil claimed by the English, and also to find out as much as possible about the French forts and garrisons. In

returning, the youthful envoy, who had failed to change the policy of the French commanders or to obtain any satisfactory answer, received at point blank the fire of a hostile Indian; at another time he was thrown into the Allegheny River in the effort to push a raft of logs across it through the great blocks of floating ice.

187. *Fort Duquesne and Great Meadows.* As the French declined to leave the country, Governor Dinwiddie sent a body of rangers to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio on the site of the modern Pittsburg, but the French drove them off and finished the fort themselves, and named it Duquesne (du kān'). The rangers were soon reënforced by part of a regiment of soldiers under Washington. In the spring of 1754 Washington, who had gone forward with a reconnoitering force, defeated a party of the French,[1] but a short time afterward (July 4, 1754) he was attacked in overwhelming numbers, and compelled to surrender the fort (Fort Necessity) which he had built in haste at Great Meadows; not, however, until he had obtained terms allowing him and his troops to return unmolested to their homes in Virginia. Thus was begun the great French and Indian War, although it was not until 1756 that the formal declaration of war between England and France was made.

188. Campaign of 1755–1756. *The Albany Convention.* The colonies saw that the cause of Virginia in the dispute with France was the cause of all. A convention, in which nearly all were represented, met in 1754, at Albany to devise a scheme of common defense. Benjamin Franklin brought forward a plan of union, which created a central authority with the right to enlist troops and raise taxes in all the colonies.

[1] Washington himself is said to have fired the first gun at Great Meadows, thus beginning a conflict which was to last for many years and have the most momentous consequences.


96°
94°
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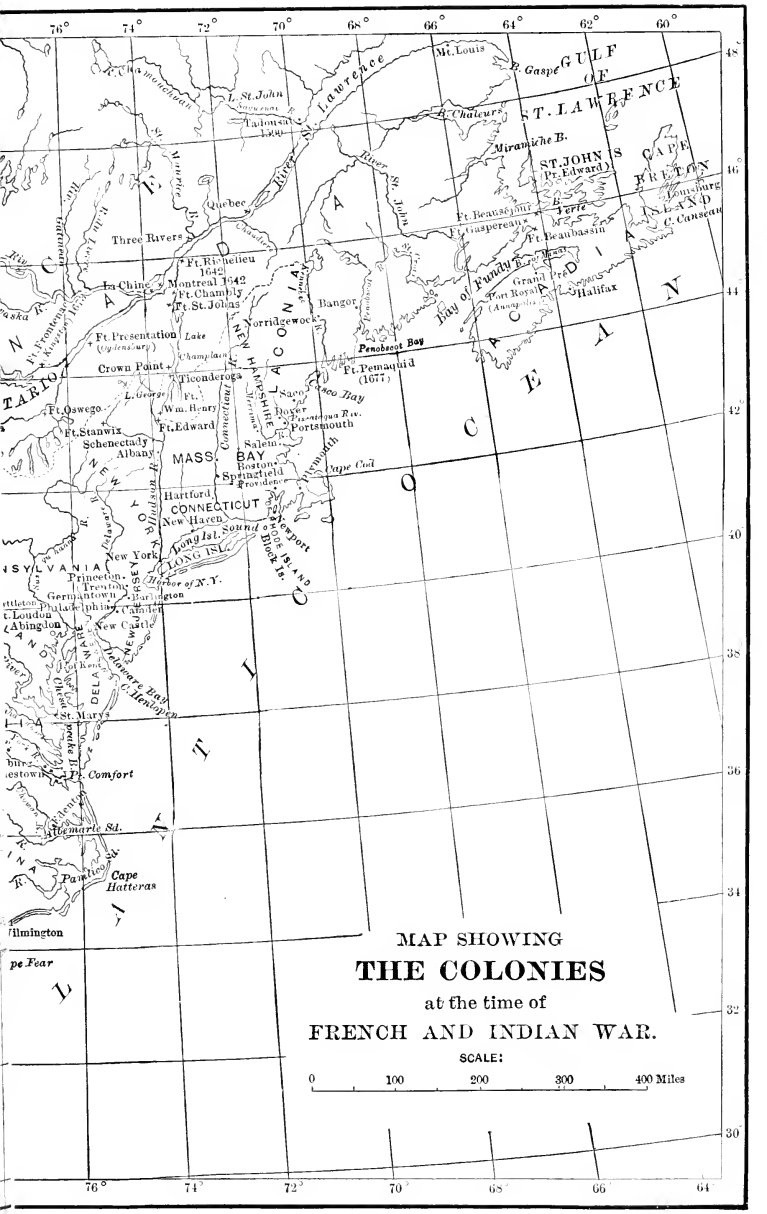
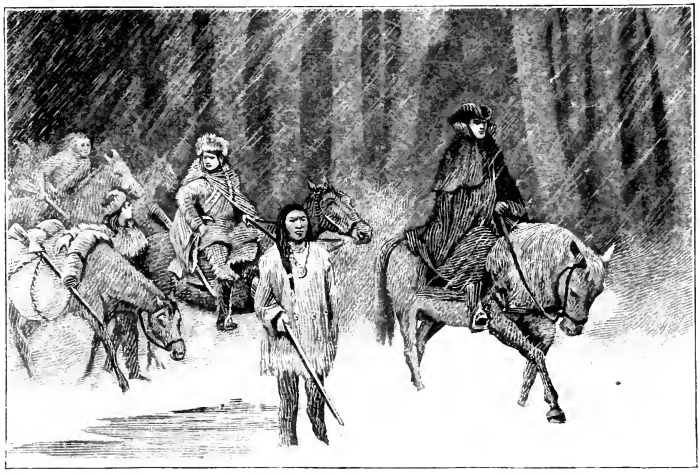
32°
30°
Red River of the North
Ft. LaMontan 1680
Isle Minyne
LAKE SUPERIOR
Chaquamegon Bay
Ste. Theresa Bay
L. Buade
Chile Lac
La Ponte Mission 1666
Falls of St. Anthony 1680
St. Croix R.
Sault Ste. Marie
1641
1670 St. Ignace (Ft. Miss.)
Straits of Mackinaw
L. Nipissing
French R.
Georgian Bay
Mackinaw
Thunder Bay
Ft. St. Xavier 1769
Green Bay
Menominee
Wisconsin River
Mississippi River
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
Muskegon
Ft. St. Joseph (Miamis) 1679
Ft. Detroit
Chicagou
Illinois
Kankakee R.
St. Louis Villages
Ft. Miamis (Helena) 1750
French Ft. (Toledo) 1680
Ft. Sandusky
Ft. Presque Isle
Ft. Le Boeuf
Ft. Venango
Ft. Kekionga 1680
St. Mary's R.
Ft. Crevecoeur 1680
Illinois River
Missouri River
Kaskaskias R.
Wabash River
Miami River
Maumee
Sandusky R.
Cuyahoga R.
Kittanning
Ft. Duquesne (Ft. Pitt) 1754
Ft. Bedford
Ft. Bird
Ft. Necessity
Ft. Cumberland
Ft. Chartres
Ft. Casquars
Ft. Kaskaskia
Ft. Vincennes 1732
Falls of Ohio
La Belle Riviere
Kenawha R.
Ohio River
Kentucky River
Scioto R.
Ft. Chissel 1768
Ft. Lewis 1756
Ft. Massacre (Assumption)
Cumberland R.
Clinch River
Holston R.
Patrick Henry 1756
French post (1714) (Nashville)
Arkansas River
Mississippi River
Ft. Prudhomme (Memphis) 1682
Chickasaw Bluff
French post
Tennessee River
Ft. Loudon 1756
Tenassee R.
Salem
Ft. Dobbs 1756
L. Keowee
Catawba R.
Yadkin R.
Ft. Tonlix
Ft. Akansea
Ft. Francis
Ft. Toulouse 1714
Ft. Tombigbee (1735)
Ft. Ofuskee 1735
Ft. St. George 1755
Alatamaha R.
Gt. Pedee R.
Gushen
Augusta
Ft. Moore
New Ebenezer
Charleston
Port Royal
Savannah
Ft. Argyle
New Inverness
Darien
St. Simon Is
Frederica
Carrs Ft.
Ft. William
St. Marys Riv.
Ft. St. George
Ft. Diego
St. Augustine
Nachitoches
Red River
Ft. Rosalie (Natchez)
Black River
Pte Coupee
Baton Rouge
Mobile 1702
Biloxi 1699
Pensacola
St. Andrews Ft.
NEW SPAIN
FLORIDA
New Orleans 1717
Dauphin Is. 1752
GULF OF MEXICO
Appalachee Bay
Ft. St. Francis
Tombigbee R.
Alabama R.
Pensacola R.
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
Apalachicola R.
Coosa R.
Tallapoosa R.
Ocmulgee River
Altamaha R.
Santee R.
Edisto R.
Savannah R.
Ogeechee River


MAP SHOWING
THE COLONIES
at the time of
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.
SCALE:
0 100 200 300 400 Miles
Mt. Louis
B. Gaspe
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
R. Chaleurs
Miramiche B.
ST. JOHN (Pr. Edward)
CAPE BRETON
Louisburg
L. St. John
Tadousac 1599
Quebec
Three Rivers
Ft. Richelieu 1642
Montreal 1642
Ft. Chambly
Ft. St. Johns
Ft. Beauséjour
Ft. Gaspereau
Ft. Beaubassin
Grand Pré
Fort Royal (Annapolis)
Halifax
Bay of Fundy
Bangor
Norridgewock
Penobscot Bay
Ft. Pemaquid (1677)
Saco Bay
Portsmouth
Salem
Boston
Cape Cod
Springfield
Providence
Hartford
CONNECTICUT
New Haven
Sound
Long Isl.
LONG IS.
Block Is.
Newport
New York
Harbor of N.Y.
Germantown
Philadelphia
Trenton
Princeton
Burlington
New Castle
Ft. Presentation (Ogdensburg)
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Ft. George
Ft. William Henry
Ft. Edward
Ft. Oswego
Ft. Stanwix
Schenectady
Albany
Ft. Comfort
Albemarle Sd.
Cape Hatteras
Wilmington
Cape Fear
Abingdon
Loudon
Lake Champlain
Connecticut R.
Merrimack R.
Kennebec R.
Penobscot R.
St. John's R.
St. Lawrence R.
Chaudiere R.
Richelieu R.
Hudson R.
Delaware R.
Susquehanna R.
Potomac R.
Rappahannock R.
Roanoke R.
Pamlico Sd.
Albemarle Sd.
Chesapeake Bay
Delaware Bay
Hampton Roads
Penobscot Bay
Saco Bay
Long Island Sd.
Block Island
Cape Cod
Lake Champlain
Lake George
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Lake Superior
Lake Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
Lake Nipigon
Lake Timiskaming
Lake Temiscamingue
Lake Abitibi
Lake Mistassini
Lake St. John
Lake Champlain
Lake Memphremagog
Lake Winnipesaukee

This plan was rejected, and each colony was left to furnish supplies and troops as seemed to it proper.

189. *The Acadians.* In 1755 an army of 2000 men from New England made an attack on the Acadian settlements lying along the Bay of Fundy. These settlements, together with Louisburg, threatened New England and controlled the fisheries. The Acadians, a simple-minded country people, had declined to take the oath of allegiance, although they were



Washington's Trip to Fort Le Bœuf

living in British territory (§ 183), and it was determined to scatter them. They were ordered by Colonel Winslow to assemble in the church at Grand Pré at a certain hour. There, for the first time, they were informed of what was in store for them; and from thence were marched on board ship — some families being separated in the confusion — and transported in bands to Massachusetts and Pennsylvania. Some finally settled in France; some in Louisiana, where their descendants still live. After the most poignant sorrows and

direst hardships many of the wanderers made their way back to the beautiful land of their birth.[1]

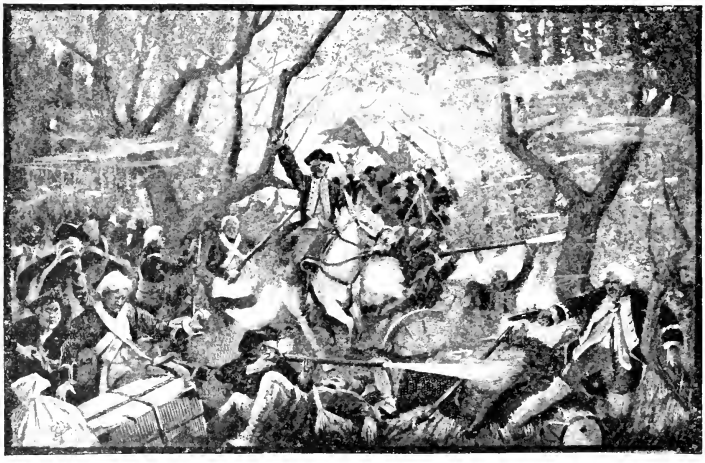
190. *March to Fort Duquesne.* Early in 1755 General Braddock came over from England with two regiments of veteran troops and took command at Alexandria, on the Potomac River, in Virginia. In June he set out from Fort Cumberland against Fort Duquesne. This stronghold threatened Virginia and Pennsylvania with constant Indian and French incursions, and it was important to reduce it. Washington, who was one of Braddock's aids-de-camp, warned him to be on guard against the savage methods of warfare, but Braddock, who despised the strength of the Indians, did not believe that they were to be feared. "The Indians," he said, "might frighten continental troops, but could excite no fear in the king's veterans." His regulars, dressed in their brilliant uniforms and with colors flying, at times marched forward as if on parade, breaking the stillness of the forests with the lively music of their fifes and drums.

191. *Braddock Defeated.* The French commander had dispatched a band of French and Indians against the English. The two forces met suddenly in a woody ravine near the fort. The French and Indians immediately separated, and concealing themselves behind trees and rocks on either side, poured a galling fire into the English huddled between them. The English could only return it by fusillades against the rocks and trees, and after a time gave way in confusion. Braddock was soon mortally wounded, and but for the activity of Washington and his Virginian troops, who were accustomed to Indian warfare, the whole of the British army would have perished. The fugitives took refuge in Fort Cumberland. In this battle Washington had two horses shot under him, and his clothes

[1] The wanderings of the Acadians is the subject of one of the most beautiful poems in our language, Longfellow's "Evangeline."

were pierced by four bullets. Many years afterward an Indian came a long distance to see him as the man at whom he had, in the fight, fired fifteen times in vain.

192. *Expedition against Crown Point.* In the same year General William Johnson made an expedition against Crown Point in New York, an important place as forming the gateway from Canada by way of Lakes George and Champlain. Colonel Williams having been sent forward with a large



Braddock's Defeat

detachment of troops, fell into an ambush and was killed, while his men retreated to the fortifications which had been erected in their rear. In vain did the French and Indians seek to dislodge them. Finally rushing out under the command of General Lyman, they threw the enemy into a complete rout and captured the French general, Dieskau (dēs'kow). Having erected Fort William Henry not far from Fort Edward, Johnson fell back to Albany.[1] An expedition under

[1] Johnson, who was wounded slightly early in the battle, slunk ingloriously to his tent. General Lyman was the real hero of the fight, but Johnson reaped

General Shirley against Fort Niagara, the gateway to the Lakes, which was important on account of the fur trade, ended in failure. The fort built by Shirley at Oswego was captured in the following summer by Montcalm, the brilliant and chivalrous commander of the French forces in America.

193. Campaign of 1757. *Attack on Fort William Henry.* Returning to Canada, Montcalm sent out word to his Indian allies to assemble at Ticonderoga. At the time appointed thousands had come in; Lake Champlain was alive with their canoes, and the forests echoed to their shouts and songs as they went through their war dances. Descending upon Fort William Henry, Montcalm after a siege of several days compelled General Monro to surrender. General Webb was at Fort Edward near by with 6000 troops, but failed to give aid. Monro lowered his flag only on condition that his troops should be allowed to march away with colors flying and all the honors of war. As they started on their way to Fort Edward, the Indian allies of the French, who had spent the night in drunken revelry, attacked them and killed a large number on the spot. The wives and children of many of the officers were also butchered. The French tried in vain to stop the massacre. "Kill me," exclaimed Montcalm to the Indians, "but spare the English who are under my protection."

194. Campaign of 1758–1759. *Louisburg and Ticonderoga.* In July, 1758, Louisburg (§ 184) was captured by General Amherst, and in the siege General Wolfe, the future conqueror of Quebec, greatly distinguished himself. An expedition against Ticonderoga under General Abercrombie (ăb'er krŭm bĭ)

the rewards; he was made a baronet for the part he was supposed to have taken in the battle. Dieskau, the brave French commander, was wounded in the battle. When found by the English he placed his hand in his pocket to take out his watch as a means of propitiating the soldier about to attack him, but the latter, thinking that Dieskau was feeling for a pistol, raised his own gun and fired, severely wounding the French general a second time.

was not successful. Montcalm, who was in command of the fort when the attack began, was seen moving rapidly along his lines cheering his soldiers and giving them refreshments with his own hands. The English general cowered in his tent until his troops were finally repulsed, when he retired in haste. This campaign was saved from total disgrace by the success of Colonel Bradstreet in capturing Fort Frontenac.

195. *Fort Duquesne Captured.* A few months later an English army set out against Fort Duquesne. As he marched along, General Forbes cut through the forests a roadway many feet wide, but this did not prevent Major Grant and a large body of Highlanders, who went on ahead, from falling into an ambuscade. Snow lay on the ground, but in spite of this Colonel Washington pushed rapidly in advance. When he arrived at the fort he found that the French had set fire to it and escaped down the river. The name of the fort was changed to Fort Pitt in honor of the English statesman, William Pitt, who now had charge of the war, and whose energy and sagacity were soon to change the whole character of the operations in America. By the capture of Forts Frontenac and Duquesne, the French line of communication between Quebec and the Ohio valley was broken.

196. Close of the War. *William Pitt.* Pitt laid down the rule that all the troops, whether British or Provincial, should be on the same footing in the way of promotions. Hitherto, a major general of the Provincials had been subordinate in rank to a major of the British regulars. The new zeal of the colonial troops, as well as the more vigorous and intelligent action of the regulars, was soon seen in all the new expeditions. General Amherst captured Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and General William Johnson (§ 192). Fort Niagara, thus closing to the French the gateways from Canada on the north and the west.

197. *Wolfe and Montcalm.* General Wolfe led an army of 8000 men against Quebec, and after a siege lasting several months, and a severe defeat near the Falls of Montmorency, six miles from Quebec, decided to scale the apparently inac-

Death of Wolfe

cessible crags of the St. Lawrence above the city.[1] Dropping silently down the river in flatboats, under cover of darkness, the troops noiselessly ascended the Heights, and on the morn-

[1] General Wolfe was a warm admirer of Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard." As he passed in his barge, on the night of assault, from vessel to vessel, making his final inspection, he repeated to his officers, in a tone of great feeling, the lines: —

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour —
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

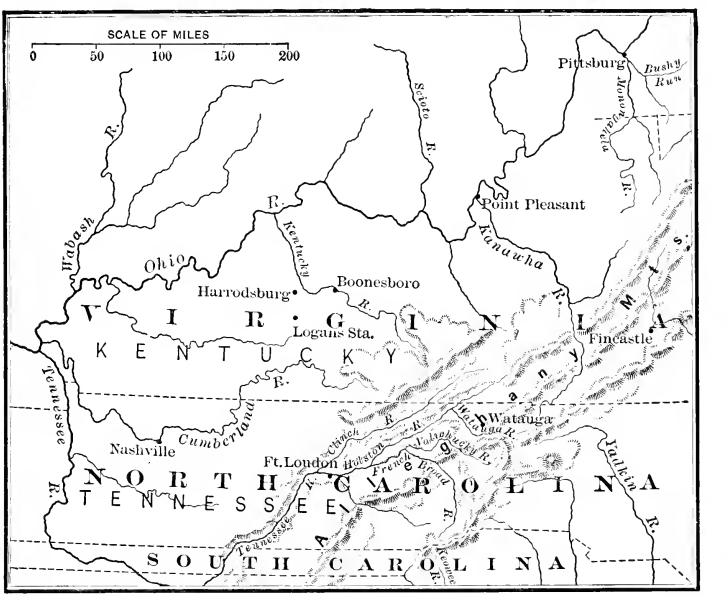
"Gentlemen," said he, in closing, "I would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec."

ing of September 13, 1759, in the face of the astonished enemy, drew up in line of battle on the Plains of Abraham. In the battle that followed, Wolfe was soon mortally wounded. "They run, they run!" "Who runs?" exclaimed the dying Wolfe, overhearing the cry. "The enemy," answered his attendants. "Then," he murmured, "I die content," and expired. Montcalm also was wounded. When told that he would die, "So much the better," he calmly replied, "I shall not live to witness the surrender of Quebec." The city opened its gates a few days later. The war was not ended until 1763. In the treaty of Paris then agreed upon, France gave up to Great Britain all further claim to territory in North America north of New Orleans and east of the Mississippi, retaining only two small fishing stations in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The region west, known as Louisiana, together with New Orleans and vicinity, was ceded to Spain. Spain ceded Florida to England, in return for Havana, which the English had captured during the war.

Struggle for Possession of the West

198. Indian Wars. *The Cherokee War.* The treaty of Paris ended the contest of England and its colonies with France and Spain, but the struggle with the Indian tribes still went on. Before the close of the war (1760) the Cherokees had taken up arms against the whites, in resentment for the erection of forts at different places on the eastern borders of Tennessee and Georgia. Hostilities had been precipitated by the arrest of their chief, while holding a conference with Governor Lyttleton of South Carolina. Colonel Montgomery was sent south, with 1200 troops, to assist the local militia. Reënforced by a large body of the latter, under command of men like Moultrie, who was to become famous in the Revolution, Montgomery gave the Indian foe battle in the Keowee

valley, and defeated them overwhelmingly. Thinking it imprudent to march farther into the woods, he turned upon his tracks, but not before he had burned the towns and beat down the crops of the natives. Fort Loudon (lōw'don), one of the forts most objected to by the Indians, was left to the



Struggle for the West

defense of its own garrison. It was soon captured by the Indians, and many of the soldiers were slain, while the rest were sent around as prisoners among the tribes. In 1761, their country having been laid waste by Colonel Grant, the Cherokees were reluctantly compelled to sue for peace.

199. *Pontiac.* After the treaty of peace was signed the English occupied all the French posts in the west. The Indian allies of the French resented this, and their indigna-

tion was increased by the arrogance of the English traders. Pon'tiac, the chief of the Ottawas, took advantage of this feeling to form a conspiracy for the expulsion of the English from the Northwest. By a blow, which fell at the same moment throughout a vast division of country, he captured eight of the forts and put their garrisons to the tomahawk. Detroit only escaped after a memorable siege. The backbone of the conspiracy was broken at the battle of Bushy Run, in Pennsylvania (1763). Many of the tribes sued for peace, but Pontiac continued at war until murdered by one of his own warriors, in return for a barrel of whisky.

200. Westward Emigration. *Treaties with the Indians.* Establishment of peace with the Indians was the signal for a movement of emigrants westward all along the line of the frontiers. A treaty in 1763 threw open to occupation a vast area of country on the southern borders, while by a treaty made in 1768, at Fort Stanwix, in New York, all the territory immediately south of the Ohio River was ceded to the whites. Settlement of the lands north of that stream did not begin until about 1789 (§ 360).

Daniel Boone

201. *Robertson, Sevier, and Boone.* In 1771 and 1772 James Robertson and John Sevier led bands of pioneers from North Carolina into the valleys of the Watauga and Nolichucky rivers, in Tennessee. The first settlement was made at Watauga. In 1769 Daniel Boone, who, as a boy, had gone from Pennsylvania to the Yadkin Valley, in North

Carolina, led a hunting expedition into Kentucky, at this time a part of Fincastle County, Virginia, and the great pasture ground of countless elk, deer, and buffalo. In a short time all but his brother and himself had fallen victims to the tomahawk. In 1775 Boone moved his family into Kentucky and established himself at the modern Boonesboro.

202. *Battle of Point Pleasant.* These inroads of the whites were warmly resented by the Indians, and led to a confederacy of the Shawnees, Delawares, and others. Open hostilities began in 1774, in consequence of the atrocious murder of the family of Logan, the chief of the Mingos. Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, issued a call for three thousand troops to defend the borders. One body, under General Andrew Lewis, dressed in deerskin hunting shirts, and armed with rifles, used in killing bear and buffalo, marched to the mouth of the Kanawha River. There, in October, they were attacked by the Indians under Cornstalk. The battle began in the night, and, from behind trees and rocks, was kept up all the following day until sunset, when the Indians retired. This victory threw open Kentucky to the whites.

203. *Western Settlements.* By 1775 there were three important settlements in that region, — Harrodsburg, Boonesboro, and Logans station, — and they now organized an assembly of their own, and provided a military force, under the command of George Rogers Clark, who had gone out into the wilderness as a surveyor. In 1776 Kentucky was made a county by the legislature of Virginia, with the right to hold its own courts and elect its own officers. Three years later James Robertson, in exploring the country west of Watauga, came to the great bend in the Cumberland River, and he was so much pleased with the beauty of the scene and the fertility of the soil, that he returned home and induced a band of emigrants to follow him thither. This was the first settlement of Nashville.

Disagreements with Great Britain

204. A Spirit of Unity. While the colonies in the great French and Indian War had not recognized any central authority among themselves, with the right to impose taxes and raise troops in all, nevertheless they had acted together on the battlefield against a common enemy. This, as we shall see, fostered among them a spirit of unity, which was to show itself in the war with the mother country, already brewing.

205. The Navigation Acts (§ 87) had been passed to give the English merchants a monopoly in the colonial exports of tobacco, rice, and sugar, and in the colonial imports of European merchandise. It was thought in England that the chief end of the colonies was to raise up new buyers for English shopkeepers. The operation of the acts was especially hard on the people of New England, who were dependent largely upon free trade with the world for a livelihood. In order to evade the acts, they were in the habit of bribing the customs officers, and whenever this fact was detected, no jury could be found that would convict them.

206. Writs of Assistance. With a view to enforcing the acts, the English government set up Courts of Admiralty, in which the judge, who was not so likely to be as much influenced by popular feeling as a jury, tried all cases in violation. Writs of Assistance were also issued, giving the officers of the customs authority to enter private houses to search for any goods which they had reason to suspect had been brought in without payment of duty. The legality of these writs was boldly and eloquently attacked in Boston by James Otis, who nobly resigned the position of advocate-general to the crown, in order to represent the people's cause. The discontent in New England was further inflamed by the revival of the duty on sugar and molasses, two articles which these colonies imported.

207. The Parsons' Cause. In 1758 the tobacco crop of Virginia failed, and the vestries obtained an act allowing them to pay the clergy, not with 16,000 pounds of tobacco, as usual, but in its equivalent in paper money, rating the tobacco, not at sixpence the pound, the market price, but at twopence. Some of the clergy appealed to the crown, and the act was annulled. Suits were now brought against the vestries for the payment of the salaries in 16,000 pounds of tobacco. A test case came up for trial in 1763. The council for the vestry was an obscure young lawyer named Patrick Henry, who took the ground, with a boldness and eloquence superior even to Otis's, that, in annulling an act of Assembly, passed for the benefit of the people, the king degenerated into a tyrant, and therefore forfeited the obedience of his subjects. The king did not veto an act of Parliament. Was it right for him to veto an act of the Virginia Assembly? It was not long before men from one end of the colonies to the other were asking themselves the same question. The immediate result of Patrick Henry's eloquence was an award by the jury of only one penny damages to the clergy.

Immediate Causes of the Revolution

208. British Troops in America. In order to garrison the strongholds in the western country, to put down the uprising of the tribes under Pontiac, and to keep up a standing force in Canada to overawe the French population, the British government was compelled to send a large army to America. Who was to bear the expense of these troops? The British Ministry declared that the colonies should bear at least a part of it, as the army was chiefly for their benefit. The colonial assemblies refused to raise funds for the purpose, and the question arose: Could the English Parliament legally, either directly or indirectly, enforce a tax upon the colonists without

their consent? The colonists declared it could not, as the colonies had no representation in Parliament. Taxation without representation was tyranny.

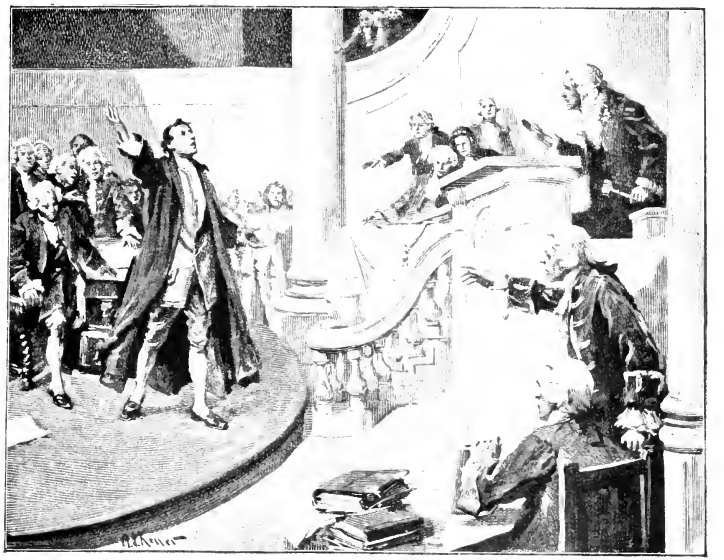
209. The Stamp Act. The British Ministry, supported by George III, but opposed by William Pitt, declared that Parliament had the right to tax the American colonies, both directly and indirectly; and in accord with this, George Grenville, the Prime Minister, in March, 1765, brought forward a measure, known as the Stamp Act, which required that stamped paper obtained from the revenue officers, should be used for every contract, note, bond, deed, and public document that was issued, and every pamphlet, almanac, and paper published in America. It was expected that this tax, together with the tax on sugar and molasses, coffee, etc., and the money got from enforcing the Navigation Acts, would give all the funds needed for the support of the troops sent to the colonies.

A Stamp

210. Excitement in the Colonies. The passage of the Stamp Act caused great excitement among the colonists,[1] for it was the first attempt by England to place an internal tax on them. All previous taxation by the mother country had been only on the merchandise brought into the colonial ports. When any money had been raised for the use of the king, it had been done by the votes of the colonial legislatures. In May Patrick Henry introduced in the Virginia House of Burgesses a series of resolutions declaring that only the General Assembly, together with the king, could impose taxes on the Virginians, and that Parliament had no voice in the internal affairs of the colony. This was the first public protest against

[1] When, in May, 1765, Governor Tryon, of North Carolina, asked Speaker Ashe what course the Assembly would take about the Stamp Act, — obey or disobey, — Ashe exclaimed, with great vehemence, "We will resist it to the blood."

the policy of England.[1] In the following October, at the call of Massachusetts, a Congress of twenty-eight delegates from all the colonies, except Virginia, New Hampshire, North



Patrick Henry addressing House of Burgesses

Carolina, and Georgia, met in New York, and, in a Declaration of Rights, reiterated substantially the general principle which Henry had so boldly proclaimed.[2]

[1] Henry followed up his resolutions with a speech so bold that it drew forth exclamations of indignant surprise from some of the members: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell, and George III" (here cries of "treason" interrupted him — his form assumed a loftier attitude, and his eye a more determined fire as he closed) "may profit by their example."

[2] Christopher Gadsden, a member from South Carolina, reflected the spirit of the Congress, in its determination to uphold the cause of all the people, when he exclaimed in one of its debates, "There ought to be no New Englander, no New Yorker, no Virginian, no Carolinian, known on the continent, but all of us Americans."

211. North and South feel alike. Opposition to the use of the stamps was equally strong in the North and South. In Georgia, the stamp agent was compelled to take refuge in the governor's house; he was glad to escape with his life, while the stamps he had brought with him were sent back to England. In North Carolina, the stamp agent was forced to swear that he would not even try to perform the duties of his office. In Boston, the "Sons of Liberty"[1] pulled down the building in which stamped paper was to be sold, and on the day the act went into effect the people closed their shops, lowered flags to half mast, and tolled the bells. The bells were also tolled in Philadelphia, while the people of New York refused to allow the stamps to be brought ashore. In Portsmouth, New Hampshire, a coffin containing the supposed body of Liberty was carried to the grave, with muffled drums, and amid the firing of minute guns.

212. Repeal of Stamp Act. The temper of the colonists was so threatening that the English Ministry decided to repeal the act rather than enforce it by arms. "I rejoice," exclaimed William Pitt, in Parliament, "that the Americans have resisted. If they had submitted, they would have voluntarily become slaves. They have been driven to madness by injustice." He was supported by Edmund Burke, one of the greatest statesmen of the time. News of the repeal caused universal rejoicing in the colonies. Bonfires were lighted, houses illuminated, cannons shot off, and bells rung. Pitt was honored with statues at the public expense.

213. New Revenue Acts. *Opposition of the Colonies.* Although Parliament repealed the Stamp Act, it still asserted

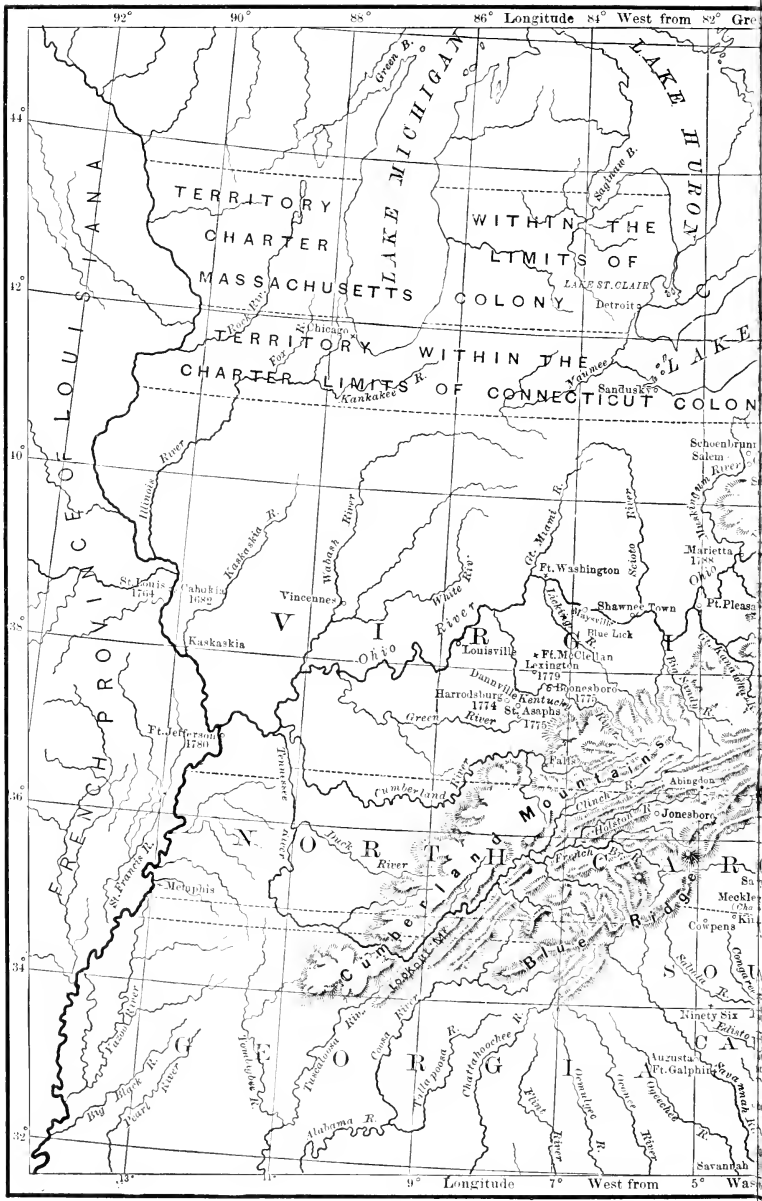
[1] "Sons of Liberty," the name adopted by a group of secret societies of workingmen, who pledged themselves to resist the execution of the Stamp Act, was an expression used by Colonel Barré in Parliament, in lauding the conduct of the American patriots.

its right to bind the Americans by any law it thought proper to adopt.[1] In 1767 it passed the Townshend Acts, which, among other things, laid a tax on all wine, oil, glass, paper, tea, and painters' colors imported into the colonies. This new measure at once stirred up the Americans. Maryland sent a committee to England to protest, while Pennsylvania, through John Dickinson, bitterly attacked the legality of the tax. Massachusetts, in a circular addressed to the colonies, appealed to them to act together for the redress of their grievances. When English troops, under General Gage, were sent to Boston to put down the tumults, the people declined to furnish them with supplies or quarters. New York had already set Massachusetts the example in this respect, and North Carolina and South Carolina followed. The Virginians, led by George Mason and George Washington, bound themselves, in a formal paper, neither to import nor use any article subject to the tax laid by Parliament.

214. *This policy of non-importation* became so general in the colonies, that, at the urgent request of the British merchants engaged in the American trade, the duty on all the articles except tea was repealed in 1770. The tax on tea was continued in order to show that the principle of taxation by Parliament without representation was not abandoned.

215. Boston Massacre. The presence of British troops gave offense everywhere, but especially in Boston, where their conduct seems to have been peculiarly irritating to the religious

[1] The English maintained that all *classes* of British subjects, whether living in the British Islands or in the colonies, were represented in Parliament — the clergy and the aristocracy by the bishops and noblemen in the House of Lords; the body of the people by the members of the House of Commons. The American principle was that nobody was represented in an assembly unless he had the right of voting for one of its members. Hence our expression applied to the lower house of Congress — "House of Representatives." In this difference of view arose the armed conflict of the Revolution.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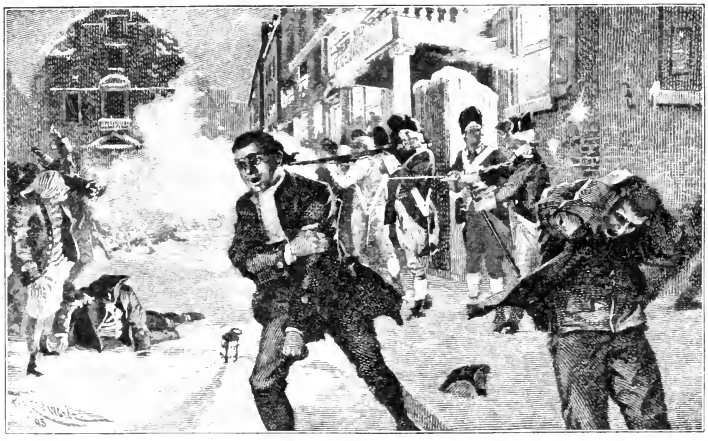
TERRITORY
CHARTER
MASSACHUSETTS
WITHIN THE
LIMITS OF
COLONY
TERRITORY WITHIN THE
CHARTER LIMITS OF CONNECTICUT COLON
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE
LAKE ST. CLAIR
Detroits
Chicago
Green B.
Sheboygan B.
Fox River
Rock River
Kankakee R.
Sandusky
Yaumee
Illinois River
Kaskaskia R.
Wabash River
Gt. Miami R.
Scioto River
Muskingum River
Schoenbrunn
Salem
Marietta
Ft. Washington
Shawnee Town
Pt. Pleasa
Blue Lick
Lexington
Ponesboro
Louisville
Ft. McClellan
Harrodsburg
St. Asaphs
Kentucky
Green River
Cumberland River
Tennessee River
Ft. Jefferson
Kaskaskia
Vincennes
St. Louis
Cahokia
Ohio River
Abington
Jonesboro
Memphis
St. Francis R.
Big Black R.
Pearl River
Tombigbee River
Alabama R.
Tuscaloosa
Coosa River
Chattahoochee R.
Flint River
Ocmulgee R.
Oconee River
Savannah
Augusta
Ft. Galphin
Ninety Six
Meckle
Compens
Cumberland Mt.
Laurel Hill Mt.
Blue Ridge
Alleghany Mts.
FRENCH PROVINCE OF LOUISIANA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA

MAP SHOWING
THE COLONIES
at the time of
THE REVOLUTION.
SCALE:
0 50 100 150 200 Miles
80° 78° 76° 74° 72° 70°
44° 42° 40° 38° 36° 34° 32°
Montreal
Ft. St. John's
Plattsburg
Burlington
Ft. Frontenac
Ft. Carlton
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Sacketts Harbor
LAKE ONTARIO
Oswego
Ft. Wm. Henry
Saratoga
Ft. Edward
Windsor
Bemis Heights
Ft. Niagara
Mohawk R.
Cherry Valley
Ft. Oriskany
Schenectady
Dennington
Saco
Dover
Portsmouth
Salem
Marblehead
Concord
Lexington
Boston
Cape Cod
Newtown
Presque Isle
Kingston
Providences
Plymouth
Venango
Wyoming
West Pt.
Stony Pt.
Morristown
Jersey City
Princeton
Brooklyn
Long Island Sd.
Long Island
Newport
Narragansett Bay
Nantucket Is.
Pittsburg
Blue Mts.
Reading
Trenton
Valley Forge
Monmouth
Bordentown
Lancaster
Germantowne
Philadelphia
Camden
Ft. Mifflin
Burlington
Cumberland
Newcastle
Baltimore
Annapolis
Alexandria
Mt. Vernon
C. May
C. Henlopen
Delaware R.
Culpeper
Charlottesville
Richmond
Manchester
James River
Williamsburg
C. Charles
Yorktown
Petersburg
C. Henry
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Danville
Dan River
Roanoke R.
Halifax
Guilford C. H.
Hillsboro
Albemarle Sd.
Roanoke Is.
Plymouth
Raleigh
Cape Fear R.
Pamlico Sd.
Cape Hatteras
New Berne
Cherau
Moores Cr.
Cape Lookout
Camden
Wilmington
Cape Fear
Ft. Motte
Ft. Moultrie
Charleston Harb.
Port Royal
ATLANTIC OCEAN

feelings of the people. On March 3, 1770, a squad of British soldiers, stationed in that city, became involved in a fight with a party of workmen. On the night of the 5th a large crowd assembled on an alarm of fire, and as it proved false, they began to annoy a British soldier who happened to be on guard. The sentinel called for assistance, and soon soldiers and townsmen were engaged in a scuffle. One of the former fired; his companions followed his example; and in a moment three



Boston Massacre

townsmen lay dead on the ground, while several others were wounded. Owing to the prominence of Boston, the news of this bloody event spread rapidly among the colonies, and greatly inflamed the minds of the people against England.

216. Battle of the Alamance. In 1767 an association was formed in Orange County, North Carolina, known as the Regulators. Their original object was to regulate the police and insist on the punishment of horse thieves and criminals. Later, they determined to resist illegal taxation. Squads of the Regulators patrolled all the western parts of the colony.

Tryon, the royal governor, marched against them, in 1771, and came up with a large body posted on the Alamance. The Royalists opened a heavy fire, which the Regulators returned with great spirit, but their ammunition giving out, they were defeated. They had, however, struck the first blow in the open field for the principles which brought on the Revolution.

217. Destruction of the Tea. In 1773 Parliament granted to the East India Company the monopoly of exporting tea to the colonies, but though it was cheaper to buy this tea with the duty on it than even that smuggled in from Holland, the colonists would not touch it. The first vessels with cargoes of tea that arrived in New York and Philadelphia were ordered to return to England. At Wilmington, North Carolina, the tea was thrown overboard, and at Annapolis, Maryland, the tea ship was burned to the water's edge. During nineteen days the tea ships lay at anchor in the harbor of Boston. As the city was in the possession of the British troops, the people could not compel the vessels to leave, but a party of townsmen appeared, disguised as Indians, who broke open the chests and poured the tea into the sea. This has since been known as the Boston Tea Party.

218. Boston Port Closed. As Boston was a town of great commercial importance, this last act excited the special indignation of Parliament, and an order was at once adopted closing the port of that city until the tea destroyed was paid for. Provision was made for the appointment of a military governor, and the trial in some other colony, or in England, of citizens who were charged with murder in resisting the laws. All assemblages of the people for the discussion of public questions were prohibited, unless the consent of the military governor was obtained; and the legal obstacles to the quartering among them of British troops were removed. At the same time the charter of Massachusetts was annulled and her free government destroyed.

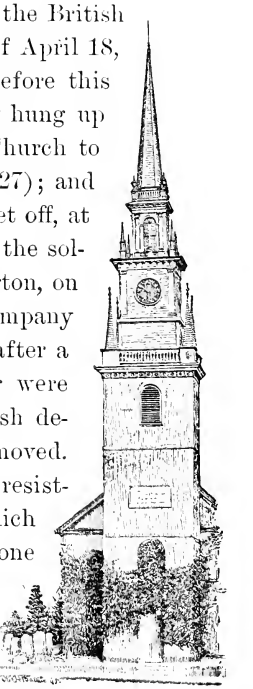
219. First Continental Congress. *Means for the Common Defense.* When news of these measures reached Williamsburg, Virginia, the General Assembly adopted a resolution that the day the Boston Port Bill went into effect should be observed in Virginia as a day of "fasting, humiliation, and prayer." The governor dissolved the Assembly, which at once met in the Raleigh tavern, as a private association, and appointed a committee to consult with the other colonies as to the expediency of calling a General Congress to devise means for their common protection. Such was the origin of the first Continental Congress. It came together in Philadelphia, in September, 1774. All the colonies were represented except Georgia, which sent a message of sympathy. Among the members were George Washington, Patrick Henry, and Richard Henry Lee, from Virginia; John and Samuel Adams from Massachusetts; Roger Sherman from Connecticut; John Jay from New York; and Edward Rutledge from South Carolina.

220. *The Congress declared* (1) that, as the colonists were not represented in Parliament, that body had no right to tax them without their consent; (2) that the colonists must be tried in America by a local jury, and not carried to England for trial; (3) that the support of an English standing army in their midst could not be legally imposed on them without their concurrence. In spite of the warnings of William Pitt, now Lord Chatham, Parliament refused to listen to the Convention. It would hear of nothing but the unconditional submission of the Americans. Would the people of the colonies give way? Events were soon to prove they would not.[1]

[1] In March, 1775, the second convention of the Virginians met at St. John's Church, in Richmond. Henry arose, and with his irresistible eloquence advocated the arming and drilling of a large body of militia. "There is no retreat but in submission and slavery," he exclaimed, "the war is inevitable, let it come. I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."

Opening of the Revolution, 1775

221. Lexington and Concord. By the order of the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts a great quantity of military supplies had been secretly collected at Concord. Getting wind of this fact, General Gage, the commander of the British forces in Boston, sent out, on the evening of April 18, eight hundred troops to destroy them. Before this little army started, the patriots in the city hung up two lights in the steeple of Old North Church to warn the people of Charlestown (map, p. 127); and Paul Revere, rowing across to that town, set off, at a full gallop, to spread the news all along the soldiers' intended route. On reaching Lexington, on April 19, the British were opposed by a company of minute men,[1] who were dispersed only after a skirmish in which seven of their number were killed. Pushing on to Concord, the British destroyed the supplies which had not been removed. At Concord Bridge they met with a sharp resistance, and at once began a rapid retreat, which soon became a flight. From behind stone walls, houses, and trees, shot after shot was poured into their ranks by farmers and minute men. Three hundred fell before they reached the intrenchments of Boston. In a few days the approaches to the city were closed by breastworks thrown up by the Americans, now numbering 16,000 men, under the command of Benedict Arnold, Israel Putnam,[2] and John Stark.



Old North Church

[1] The "minute" men were those among the colonists who had bound themselves to appear at a minute's notice, ready for immediate military service.

[2] It is said that Putnam, hearing of the Concord fight while plowing, saddled a horse, and, without waiting to change his clothes, galloped off to Boston.

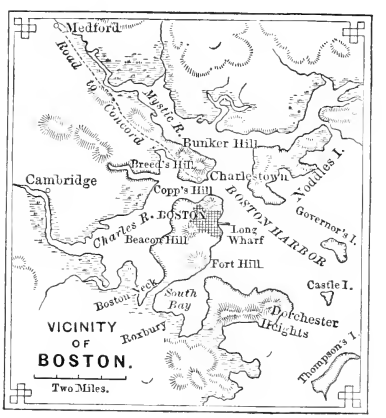
222. The Southern Colonies. Nowhere did the news of this battle cause a greater stir than in the Southern colonies. The Committee of Safety in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, drew up and had publicly read a formal declaration of independence of the mother country. The Assembly of South Carolina gave orders that three regiments should at once be mustered into service, and appropriated $100,000 for the carrying on of the war. The citizens of Georgia showed equal energy in taking prompt possession of the powder magazine at Savannah. A few weeks later, the Virginia Convention deposed Governor Dunmore, who had fled from Williamsburg, and gave the public administration to a Committee of Safety.

223. Capture of Ticonderoga. During the progress of these events Ethan Allen, in command of the "Green Mountain Boys," assisted by Benedict Arnold and Seth Warner, at the head of troops drawn from the Connecticut Valley, had captured Ticonderoga, and the large quantity of cannon, muskets, and ammunition which it contained. Arriving with only eighty-three men before that stronghold about daybreak, May 10, 1775, Allen, after having a gun snapped at him by the sentinel at the sally port, forced his way in as far as the room which the commander was occupying. "I demand the surrender of the fortress," he cried as he entered. "By whose authority?" asked the astonished officer. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," Ethan Allen is said to have answered. The fortress fell without the loss of an American life or gun, and the event was soon followed by the surrender of Crown Point.

224. Washington Commander in Chief. At this time the Americans perhaps numbered about 2,000,000 whites, barely one third of the population of Great Britain. As the English government had, as far as possible, put a stop to all branches of manufacture in the colonies, the latter had now but few

means of making military arms and accouterments. They had, in the end, to look to France for their chief supply of these articles. The second Continental Congress, which met in 1775, was not to be discouraged. It voted that the colonies should furnish 20,000 troops, appropriated $30,000 for the purchase of powder, and appointed George Washington commander of the American army. Among the other officers appointed at the same time were Generals Charles Lee and Horatio Gates, two English military adventurers who had had considerable experience in war.

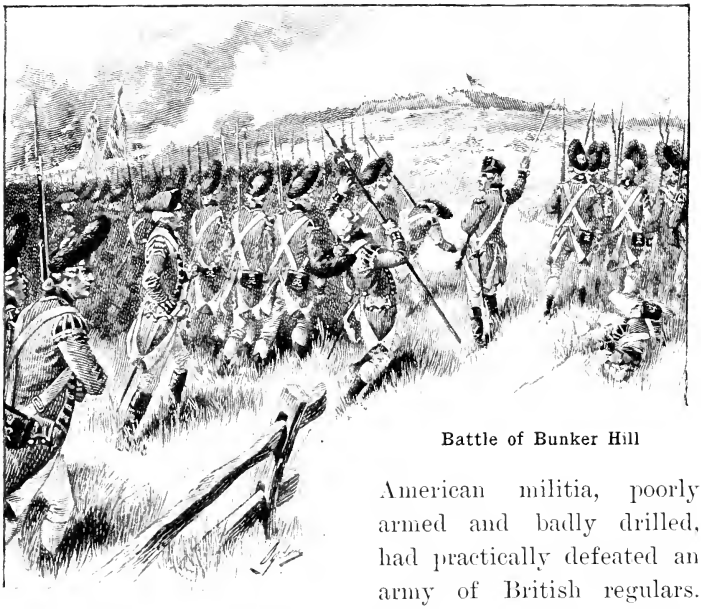
225. Battle of Bunker Hill. *Militia against Regulars.* There were now 10,000 British troops in Boston. It was reported at the American headquarters that the enemy intended fortifying Bunker Hill, and orders were given to throw up breastworks there by night. The body of men sent thither, under Colonel Prescott, planted a battery instead on Breeds Hill just beyond, from which they could hurl shells into the city. In order to dislodge them, General Howe crossed over to Charlestown at noon the next day (June 17, 1775) with a force of 3000 men.



The order ran down the American lines, which had now been reënforced by Putnam and Stark, and numbered about 1200 troops, "Don't fire until you see the whites of their eyes." The enemy, struck down in platoons, reeled back in confusion to the foot of the hill. It was not until the third assault, when the Americans had exhausted their ammunition, that the British,

who had by this time lost 1000 men, were able to carry their intrenchments. The Americans withdrew in good order.[1]

226. *Moral Influence of the Battle.* The result of this battle had all the moral influence of a great victory. The



Battle of Bunker Hill

American militia, poorly armed and badly drilled, had practically defeated an army of British regulars. The British Parliament, however, determined to push the war with greater vigor than ever. They voted an addition of 45,000 men to the forces already stationed in America. One half of these troops were obtained by hire from the landgrave of Hesse Cassel and other German princes. All trade with the colonies was forbidden; and all colonial vessels were declared to be lawful prize for English ships.

[1] Among those killed on the American side was the brave General Joseph Warren of Boston. When Washington received news of the battle from a courier, "How did the militia stand fire?" he asked with eagerness. "Well," was the reply. "Then," said he, "the liberties of the country are safe."

Events of the Revolution, 1775–1776

227. Washington takes Command. On July 3, 1775, Washington arrived in Cambridge, Massachusetts, and took command of the army, numbering about 14,000 men. He was in the forty-third year of his age at this time, tall and erect in figure, noble in feature, and calm and dignified in bearing. At first, the only troops were New England militia, but soon all the colonies were represented. Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia sent 1400 men skilled in the use of the rifle in border warfare and the pursuit of game. The color of the regulation uniform was blue and buff, but the largest number of the soldiers were dressed in hunting shirts which had been dyed brown. The first flag was the British double cross with stripes.[1] It was not until 1777 that the flag with the stars and stripes was adopted.

Elm under which Washington took Command of Army

228. Expedition against Canada. *Montgomery and Arnold.* While Washington was getting ready to drive the British from Boston, Congress decided to send an expedition against Canada in the hope of preventing an invasion of New York from that quarter, and also of inducing the French population of the province to throw off British rule. In November, 1775, Gen-

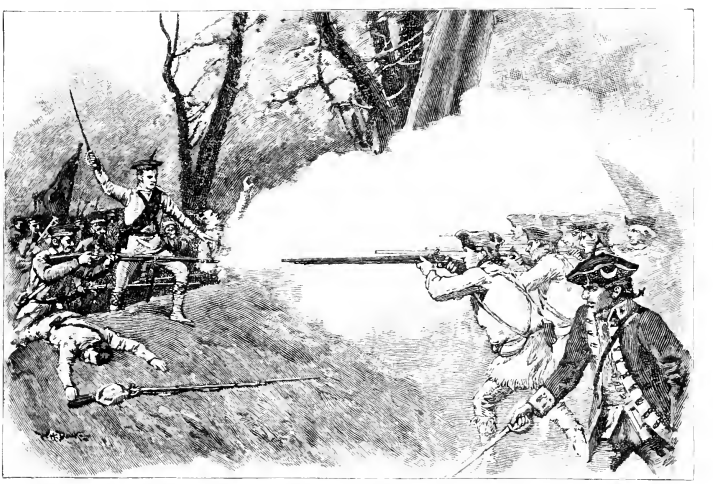
[1] There were several companies in Cambridge which flaunted private flags. Such was the case with the minute men of Culpeper, Virginia; the picture of a rattlesnake, coiled to strike, had been worked in the folds of the flag, with the legend beneath: "Liberty or Death, Don't tread on me."

eral Montgomery succeeded in capturing Montreal, and then, with a small army, pushed on toward Quebec. In the meanwhile Arnold, with an army nearly three times as large, was hurrying through the forests of Maine to join them. In thirty-one days his men marched three hundred miles, although, at one time, compelled to hew their path through the woods; at another, to feed on their dogs and shoes.

229. *Attack on Quebec.* Montgomery and Arnold met under the walls of Quebec, and on December 31, in the midst of a blinding fall of snow, they made an assault on the city. "Men of New York," cried Montgomery to his troops, "you will not fear to follow where your general leads." In a moment he was cut down by a volley of grape-shot. Arnold was soon disabled, and Morgan, the next in command, who had made his way far into the city, was captured. Arnold drew back several miles and sat down to wait for reënforcements. A British fleet appearing, the order for a retreat was given. Abandoning their baggage, artillery, stores, and the sick, the American army retired southward to Crown Point. The expedition had failed.

230. Royal Governors driven out. *Dunmore.* When Governor Dunmore fled from Williamsburg, and, in consequence, was deprived of his functions by the Virginia Convention (§ 222), he stationed himself in Norfolk. From this place he offered freedom to all slaves who would rise up against their masters; and he encouraged the Indians on the frontier to renew their bloody incursions. From time to time he made marauding expeditions along the shores of the Chesapeake. The defeat of the British at Great Bridge (map p. 161), about twelve miles from Norfolk, forced Dunmore to abandon the city, which was set on fire by its own citizens, after a bombardment by the enemy. Dunmore retired to Gwynn Island, where he remained until driven off to New York.

231. *Battle of Moores Creek Bridge.* Governor Martin, of North Carolina, was compelled to fly to a British man-of-war for safety, while his troops, under the command of General Macdonald, were totally defeated, on February 27, 1776, by Colonel Caswell at Moores Creek Bridge. The Tories[1] of South Carolina, who had been instigated to rise by Governor Campbell, were put down with equal spirit. The governor of Georgia



Battle of Moores Creek Bridge

was arrested, but contrived to escape to the shelter of a British ship. By 1776 the royal governors in all the Northern colonies had either fled or been thrown into prison. Thus ended ingloriously British rule in the North and South alike.

232. Military Operations. *British evacuate Boston.* In March, 1776, Washington, who had been untiring in bringing the army besieging Boston to a state of efficiency, began a

[1] Americans who actively supported the British side in the Revolutionary War were known as Tories.

bombardment of the city at night, and on the fourth night, the bombardment still going on, ordered breastworks to be thrown up on Dorchester Heights overlooking the town. When Howe saw the breastworks next morning, he exclaimed, "These rebels have done more work in twelve hours than my whole army could have done in a month." A storm arose, which prevented the British for two days from beginning an attack, and in the meanwhile, the Americans had made their fortifications impregnable. Howe, accompanied by his army of 11,000 men, and a band of 1000 loyalists, set sail for Halifax, and the American troops at once entered the city.

233. *Expedition against Charleston.* Two months later General Clinton led an expedition by sea against Charleston, South Carolina. A fort of palmetto logs filled in with sand bags had been built on Sullivans Island, so as to defend the channel. "The British fleet will knock your fort to pieces in ten minutes," said Captain Lamperer, an old sailor. "In that case," quietly answered Colonel Moultrie, who was in command, "we will lie behind the ruins and prevent the enemy from landing." So soft was the palmetto wood that it did not splinter when the fleet shelled the fort. In the course of the fight a cannon ball cut the flagstaff in two, and the flag tumbled to the ground outside of the works. As it fell Sergeant Jasper leaped through an embrasure, and seizing the flag, fastened it to a new staff, and amid a storm of bullets planted it on the bastion nearest the enemy. Under the heavy fire of the Americans only one of the ten British ships remained seaworthy when they retreated out of range. After nearly three weeks to repair his fleet, the discouraged commander sailed away to the north.

234. **Independence and Confederation.** *Sentiment in Favor of Separate Government.* Although at war with Great Britain, the colonists had declared that they had no wish to separate from the mother country, and that they were only

fighting for what they considered to be their rights under the charters granted them by England. The sentiment in favor of a separate government, however, had been steadily growing. It was seen that no foreign aid could be looked for while the colonies maintained their allegiance to Great Britain. The feelings of the people were also outraged by the employment of a hireling soldiery, like the Hessians (§ 226), to overrun the country, shoot down its defenders, and lay waste its homes.

235. *Declaration of Independence.* In May the delegates of Virginia in Congress were instructed by the Virginia Convention, then sitting, to propose that the United Colonies should be declared free and independent States. A motion to that effect was offered in Congress by Richard Henry Lee, and seconded by John Adams. It was not, however, until July 4 that the Declaration of Independence, drawn by Thomas Jefferson, a member from Virginia, was adopted. News of this step was received throughout the colonies with every manifestation of joy and approval.

236. *A plan of confederation* was next discussed. The documents containing the articles, however, were not signed until July, 1779, and then only by ten States. Maryland held out until 1781 (§ 290). In the interval Congress governed without any binding written constitution, but yet in general according to the plan laid down in the articles. Under the articles as they finally went into effect the colonies took the name of the United States of America. Each State was declared to be sovereign and independent, but no State could enter into a treaty with a foreign power or another State without the consent of all the States. Each State was required to pay a certain amount of taxes to the central government and furnish a certain number of troops. Congress alone could determine on peace or war, coin money, make treaties, and fix the amount of money to be paid by the States.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD III

GROWING UNION OF THE COLONIES.

- I. Minor Intercolonial Wars.
  - 1. King William's War, 1689–1697.
    - 1. Capture of Port Royal.
    - 2. Quebec Expedition.
    - 3. Burning of Schenectady.
  - 2. Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713.
    - 1. Burning of Deerfield.
    - 2. Attack on Charleston.
    - 3. Expedition against Quebec and Montreal.
  - 3. King George's War, 1744–1748.
    - 1. Capture of Louisburg.
    - 2. Battles in Georgia.
- II. Great French and Indian War, 1754–1763.
  1. French build Inland Forts.
  2. Washington sent to remonstrate.
  3. French build Fort Duquesne.
  4. Battle of Great Meadows.
  5. Albany Convention meets.
  - 6. Campaign of 1755–1757.
    - 1. Acadians dispersed.
    - 2. Braddock's defeat at Fort Duquesne.
    - 3. Dieskau defeated at Crown Point.
    - 4. Fort Oswego captured.
    - 5. Fall of Ft. William Henry.
  - 7. Campaign of 1758–1759.
    - 1. Louisburg captured.
    - 2. Ticonderoga Expedition.
    - 3. Fort Duquesne captured.
    - 4. Fall of Quebec.
    - 5. Treaty of Peace.
- III. Indian Wars.
  - 1. With the Cherokees.
    - 1. Battle in Keowee Valley.
    - 2. Fall of Fort Loudon.
  - 2. Pontiac.
    - 1. Captures English Forts.
    - 2. Battle of Bushy Run.
  3. Confederacy of the Shawnees and Battle of Point Pleasant.
- IV. Westward Flow of Population.
  - 1. Tennessee.
    - 1. Watauga and Nashville.
  - 2. Kentucky.
    - 1. Daniel Boone.
    - 2. First Settlements.
- V. Causes of the Revolution.
  - 1. Enforcement of Navigation Acts.
    - 1. Smuggling.
    - 2. Writs of Assistance.
    - 3. Courts of Admiralty.
  2. Revived Duty on Sugar, Molasses, etc.
  - 3. Stamp Act.
    - 1. Opposition of Colonists.
    - 2. Henry's Resolutions.
    - 3. Stamp Act Congress.
    - 4. Repeal.
  - 4. Tax on Tea.
    - 1. Colonists Remonstrate.
    - 2. Non-importation Policy.
    - 3. Destruction of the Tea.
- VI. Opening of the Revolution to 1776.
  - 1. Military.
    - 1. Battle of Alamance.
    - 2. Lexington and Concord.
    - 3. Capture of Ticonderoga.
    - 4. Battle of Bunker Hill.
    - 5. Fall of Montreal.
    - 6. Battle Moores Creek Br.
    - 7. Boston evacuated.
    - 8. Siege of Charleston, S.C.
  - 2. Civil.
    - 1. First Cont. Congress.
    - 2. Mecklenburg Declaration.
    - 3. Second Cont. Congress.
    - 4. Declaration of Independence.
    - 5. Confederation.

PERIOD IV. INDEPENDENCE AND CONFEDERATION

Events of the Revolution, 1776–1777

237. Battle of Long Island. Foiled in New England, the English government decided to transfer the theater of war to New York. With the harbor of New York and the line of the Hudson River under the control of a British fleet and army, not only would the road to Canada be always open, but New England would be cut off from the other colonies. Early in July, 1776, General Howe appeared off Staten Island[1] with a large army of men, which was soon increased by reënforcements, under Admiral Howe and General Clinton. Washington had only one third as many men fit for service. The defenses of New York extended over a line of twenty miles. On August 22 the British troops left their encampment on Staten Island and landed on Long Island. Aided by Tories, who served as guides, and advancing in three divisions, they were able, on August 27, in spite of the most heroic resistance, especially by Smallwood's battalion of Marylanders, to surround the small American force, which, under the command of Generals Sullivan and Stirling, guarded the approaches to the Heights. Sullivan was captured. Instead of at once assaulting the Heights, where General Putnam was stationed,

[1] Admiral Howe, on joining Clinton on Staten Island, dispatched a letter to "George Washington, Esq.," in which he offered pardon to all who would return to their allegiance. The letter was sent back unanswered. Howe then addressed a second letter of exactly the same tenor to "General George Washington," who briefly replied that the Americans were engaged in defending their rights, and had done nothing requiring forgiveness.

General Howe, recalling the stubborn spirit of the American troops and the terrible slaughter at Bunker Hill, a situation which the Heights resembled, deliberately sat down and besieged the position. This gave the Americans time to escape.

238. Retreat from Long Island. Quickly gathering up all the boats in reach, on the night of August 29, when a heavy fog had settled down on water and land, Washington marched his troops from the Heights, and quietly bore them over to the other side of the river. Withdrawing from New York, he took position on Harlem Heights.[1] After successfully resisting here an attack by the enemy, he retired to White Plains, where, on October 28, an indecisive battle was fought. Washington now fell back to North Castle, about ten miles northeast of White Plains. Leaving a part of his army there, he stationed the remainder on the western side of the Hudson, in order to be in a position to defend Philadelphia should the British attack it.

239. Retreat across New Jersey. The British, having, after a heavy loss, captured Fort Washington (November 16), crossed

[1] While Washington was at Harlem Heights, Nathan Hale volunteered to visit the British camp to discover the enemy's designs. Betrayed by a Tory kinsman, he was arrested and hanged as a spy. As he mounted the gallows he expressed regret "that he had but one life to give to his country."

over the Hudson and took possession of Fort Lee, which the Americans had abandoned on their approach. By their greater strength, they forced Washington to fall back across the whole width of New Jersey. It was now winter, and many of the men were in tatters; many were even barefooted, and left in the snow tracks stained with blood. In derision, the Tories taunted them, as they passed, as vagabonds and ragamuffins. Having secured all the boats for a distance of seventy miles up and down the Delaware River, Washington crossed over to the west bank. The British army coming up, halted on the east bank, where it awaited the freezing over of the stream. A part of this force were Hessians, who encamped at Trenton. In the meanwhile the section of the American army which Washington had left at North Castle, under the command of General Charles Lee (§ 224), had marched into New Jersey, and taken position at Morristown. While seated in gown and slippers in an inn near his camp, Lee was captured, not improbably by an arrangement with the enemy, as a short time later on he secretly revealed all the American plans to the British.

240. Battles of Trenton and Princeton. *A Critical Hour.* It was a critical hour. The successes of the British had weakened the American cause among the people of New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. But Washington and Congress did not quail. Congress conferred on Washington the fullest powers for carrying on the war, and took steps to secure foreign aid (§ 252). The pay of the soldiers was in arrears, and in order to obtain the necessary funds, Washington, who had already pledged his own fortune for supplies, appealed to Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, who raised the required amount out of his own means and by the contributions of his friends. Washington, however, saw that if the spirit of patriotism was to be greatly revived, and his army kept together, he must strike a bold and successful blow.

241. *Hessians Surprised.* On Christmas evening, at which time he thought the discipline of the Hessian soldiers stationed at Trenton (§ 239), under Colonel Rahl, would be relaxed, Washington, in the midst of a fierce storm of hail and snow, crossed over the Delaware, all blocked with floating ice, and marching straight to Trenton, in twenty minutes after his arrival compelled the Hessians to surrender. Only two hun-

Washington crossing the Delaware

dred escaped. Rahl was so severely wounded that he soon died. The Americans safely regained the Pennsylvania side with their prisoners.

242. *New Jersey in American Hands.* The capture of the Hessians revived the spirit of the patriots, and convinced the enemy the war had not yet ended. Washington soon crossed the Delaware again. The British now advanced in force, and Washington's position became very dangerous. The enemy were in front of him; the Delaware River, full of floating ice, was behind him. Cornwallis was urged to attack him the night he came up. "In the morning," he replied, "we will

bag the fox," and retired to bed; but after darkness fell the fox broke cover. Leaving fires burning brightly in camp, and the pickets at their posts, Washington marched straight toward Princeton, and before assistance could arrive from Trenton, routed the British regiments which were stationed there (January 3, 1777). He then retired into winter quarters at Morristown. When the winter closed, nearly all of New Jersey had fallen into the hands of the American patriots. Washington was hailed as the savior of his country and as the American Fabius.

243. Burgoyne and St. Leger. *Battle of Bennington.* In July, 1777, a large British army, under the command of General Burgoyne, reached Ticonderoga from Canada, and from there began the march southward toward Saratoga on their way to the town of New York. General Schuyler and the American troops slowly retired before it, but so seriously blocked its progress by burning the bridges and felling trees across the roads, that the British advance was very slow. Food for his soldiers soon became so scanty that Burgoyne was compelled to send out expeditions to secure it. A force of Hessians and Indians under Colonel Baum were dispatched for this purpose to Bennington, in Vermont, where a body of American militia was stationed in defense of the stores. "There are the redcoats," exclaimed Colonel Stark, when the enemy came in sight; "we must beat them to-day, or Molly Stark's a widow." The British were driven from the field with heavy loss (August 16).

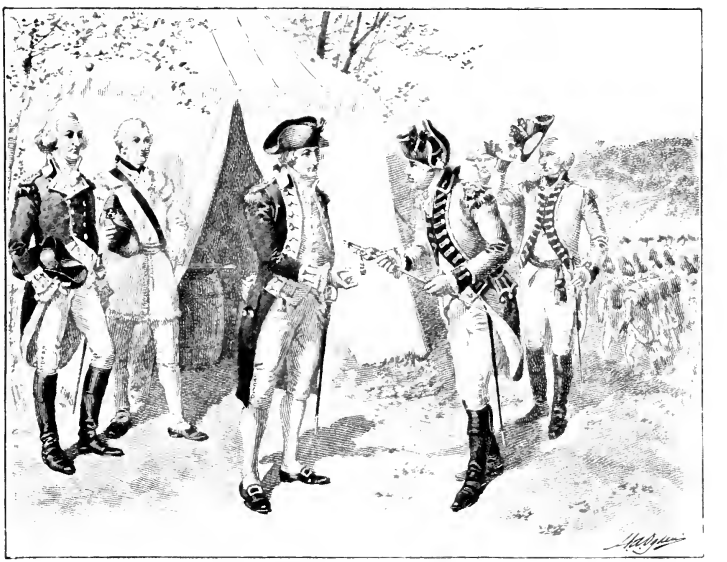
244. *Oriskany.* During the progress of these events Colonel St. Leger had been marching from Lake Ontario to the Mohawk Valley with the view of joining Burgoyne. On August 3 he laid siege to Fort Stanwix, or Fort Schuyler, as it was now called. General Herkimer hurried to its relief, but at Oriskany, a few miles down the Mohawk, fell into an ambush of

rangers and Mohawk Indians. Mortally wounded, Herkimer, propped for support against a tree, and smoking his pipe, gave orders to his soldiers while his strength lasted. In the end the militia had to retreat. General Schuyler soon sent General Arnold to break up the siege. A half-witted Tory had been captured, and he was promised his freedom if he would, on the pretense of having escaped from the Americans, rush into the British camp and tell the commander that an American army, overwhelming in numbers, was coming up, and that Burgoyne had been driven back to Canada. The stratagem succeeded; the British made their way in haste to Canada.

245. Battles near Saratoga. *Freemans Farm or Bemis Heights.* General Gates had now superseded General Schuyler. In September the British army advanced from Saratoga, in the hope of breaking through the obstruction that blocked the way toward the south. At Freemans Farm, just north of Be'mis Heights, they came upon the Americans, and, after a contest lasting until nightfall, held possession of the field (September 19). About two weeks afterward the British again advanced and attacked the Americans, near Bemis Heights (October 7). Arnold had been relieved from the command of his part of the army before the battle, by Gates, on a pretense of disobedience to orders. When the fight began, he dashed to the front and, in a sort of frenzy, charged with his troops and cheered them to the onset. All the bravery of the British army was in vain. They were forced to fall back, after a severe loss.

246. *The Surrender.* Burgoyne now retreated to Saratoga. The Indians and Tories, scenting defeat in the air, had been rapidly deserting him, and his supplies were running so low that the daily rations of his soldiers were cut down to the smallest quantity. Recruits were rushing to the American standard from all sides. Unless aid came to him

soon, Burgoyne wrote to General Clinton, he would be forced to surrender. Soon rations for only three days were left. A council of war was held, and during its session a large cannon ball passed just above the heads of those sitting around the table. They decided to surrender, and, on the 17th of October, the British troops, about 6000 in all, stacked their arms.

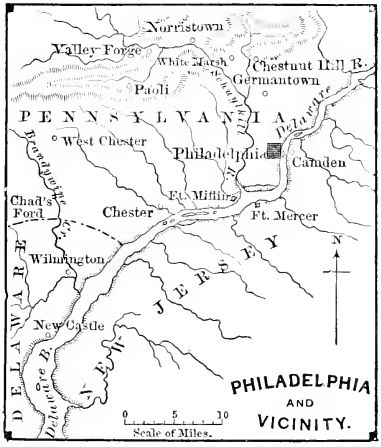


Burgoyne's Surrender

The captives were marched, first into Massachusetts and then into Virginia and Pennsylvania, and there remained until the declaration of peace.

247. Near Philadelphia. *Brandywine.* It had been the original plan of General Howe to move northward from the town of New York and form a junction with Burgoyne, but calculating that he would have ample time first to capture Philadelphia, he transported an army up Chesapeake Bay, to

its head, and thence began his march upon Philadelphia. He took this roundabout route because Washington barred the path across New Jersey, and strong forts defended the channel of the Delaware River. At Chads Ford, on the Brandywine, Howe found the American army confronting him (September 11, 1777). He at once sent Cornwallis to turn the American flank by stealing up one bank of the stream and then down the other. The American right wing was saved from destruction only by the arrival of General Greene, who had traversed four miles in forty-two minutes. The American army retreated to Chester and, after much maneuvering, the British took possession of Philadelphia.[1]



248. *Lafayette.* A number of brave officers from continental Europe had now joined the American patriots. Among them were Baron de Kalb, from Germany; Counts Pulaski and Kosciusko (kŏs sĭ ŭs'ko), from Poland; and the Marquis

[1] Washington established his headquarters at White Marsh. Here he would probably have been captured but for the patriotism and bravery of Lydia Darragh, a name deserving lasting honor in American history. A British council of war was held at her house in Philadelphia, and it was decided that the American camp should be surprised. She rose from her bed and overheard all the details of the plan, and promptly determined to thwart it. Obtaining, the next morning, a passport through the British lines, on the plea that she wished to go to a mill in the country, she rode to the American camp as fast as her horse could carry her, and warned Washington of the intended attack. When the British troops arrived, the American forces were drawn up in array of battle, and the enemy retired discomfited.

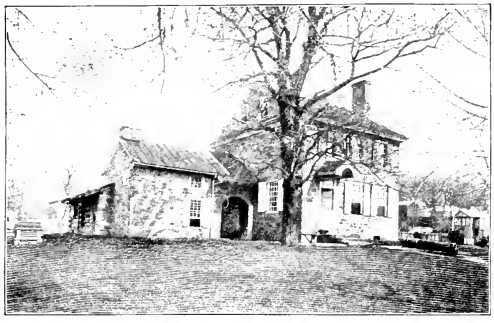
de Lafayette, from France. Lafayette was only twenty-three years of age, and had only recently been married. He had fitted out a vessel and, leaving behind wife, fortune, and the most brilliant prospects, crossed the ocean to give active support to a cause which, at that time, seemed fated to end in complete failure. He offered his services to Congress without remuneration. His relations with Washington soon became those of the warmest affection. In the battle of Brandywine, Lafayette, who was badly wounded, and Pulaski won great distinction by their skill and courage.

La Fayette

249. *Germantown and Valley Forge.* The main body of the British army was stationed at Germantown. Here, on October 4, Washington attacked it, with the brave and dashing Anthony Wayne — "Mad Anthony," as he was known — leading the American van. The enemy were driven back, but, in retreating, six companies threw themselves into a stone house by the way, and held it, even after the principal American forces had passed on. A heavy fog hung over the battlefield. The Americans in advance, hearing the loud fusillade in their rear, became so confused in the darkness that one party fired by mistake into another. The British now rallied, and the Americans slowly withdrew from the field. Howe now turned his attention to the forts along the Delaware, which he captured only after an obstinate defense. So great was the delay caused by the Philadelphia campaign that Howe lost the opportunity of assisting Burgoyne in his terrible predicament at Saratoga. Washington, therefore, was indirectly entitled to much of the credit of the surrender.

250. *Valley Forge.* In December Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, near Philadelphia. Before

rude huts were built to shelter the troops, they slept in the snow. Few had even blankets or straw; hundreds had no shoes to wear. The only food was salt fish, potatoes, and a little flour. Hungry, half naked, cold, sick, without medicines, and defeated, nevertheless the soldiers were unyielding in their determination to uphold the cause of their country to the last gasp. In all these frightful hardships Washington bore his share without a murmur. The greatness of his spirit was never more apparent. Mrs. Washington had now joined him, and she and the wives of the officers devoted their time to making clothes for the soldiers.



Washington's Headquarters at Valley Forge

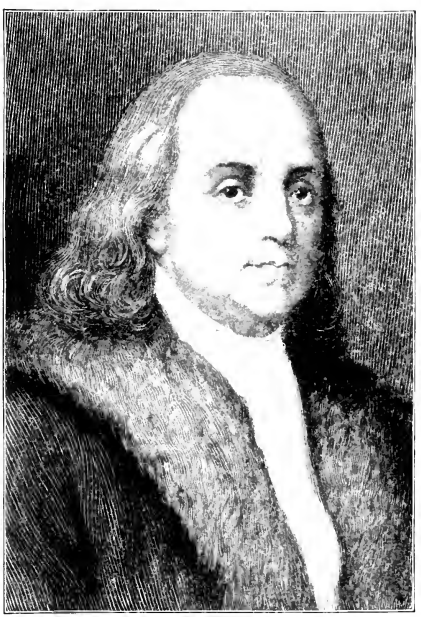
251. Cabal against Washington. The anxiety which Washington suffered at this time was increased by an intrigue among the members of Congress, certain military officers, and the Board of War, sitting in Philadelphia, to deprive him of his command, and put General Gates in his place. When news of the cabal[1] reached the army, there was such an outburst of indignation that the plans of the conspirators were at once abandoned. The discipline of the American troops was greatly improved at this time by the appointment of Baron Steuben, a distinguished European officer, to the position of inspector

[1] This cabal was known as the "Conway Cabal," from its head, an Irish adventurer, — General Conway, — who had come over and offered his services to Congress. He was challenged by one of Washington's officers for the part he took in the intrigue, and was severely wounded. Before leaving the country he wrote Washington a letter of apology.

general, who began at once to drill them after the European manner. By the appointment of General Greene to the quartermaster generalship the privations of the soldiers were greatly diminished.

Events of the Revolution, 1778

252. The French Alliance. As early as 1776 Silas Deane had been sent to Paris to procure arms and ammunition. He was followed first by Arthur Lee, and then by Benjamin Franklin, who was instructed to secure the aid of a French army and fleet. In his fur cap and plain dress, with his homely wit and genial manners, Franklin soon became the most popular man in France, but not even his influence could at first induce the French government to break openly with Great Britain. It was afraid lest, should France join the American patriots at this stage of hostilities, when so little real success had been won, the principal part of the fighting, as well as the chief expense of supporting the army, would fall on the French nation. The surrender of Burgoyne removed this fear.



Benjamin Franklin

253. British Overtures. Early in 1778 France entered into an alliance with the United States, and promised to dispatch

to America a fleet and an army of men. Great Britain at once declared war against France, and sent commissioners to the United States with instructions to concede all that the Americans had claimed — freedom from taxation, except by their own assemblies, or taxation by Parliament only in case they were fully represented in that body. Congress declined to accept these overtures as coming too late.

254. Battle of Monmouth. Fearing lest a French fleet should enter New York harbor in his absence, General Clinton, who had succeeded Howe in command of the British army at Philadelphia, decided to abandon that city and return by land to New York. On June 28, 1778, at Monmouth, New Jersey, Washington ordered General Charles Lee, who had been exchanged (§ 239), to assault the rear guard of the retiring enemy. One of the movements of the forces carrying this out was taken by the subordinate officers as a signal to fall back; in a short time the whole attacking division was in retreat, which Lee made no effort to stop. Washington, who was coming up with the rest of the army, galloped forward, and after sharply rebuking Lee, rallied the troops and turned their faces again against the enemy.[1] When night arrived, the Americans were in possession of the field. This was the last important battle in the North. Clinton crossed over to New York City, while Washington took position at White Plains.

255. Newport and New York were now the only two northern towns of importance occupied by the British. Washington was hopeful that, with the aid of the French fleet, he could force Clinton to surrender, but unfortunately the largest French vessels drew too much water to cross the bar at the mouth of New York harbor. General Sullivan was sent to besiege New-

[1] Lee was at first suspended from the army, but was finally dismissed for writing an impertinent letter to Congress. He spent his last days in a hut in the Alleghany Mountains, with only his dogs for company.

port, while the French fleet was expected to prevent the British ships from coming to its rescue by sea. A violent tempest arose and scattered the French and British vessels, and soon afterward Sullivan withdrew his troops. The French admiral, D'Estaing (dĕs tăx'), sailed away to the West Indies.

256. British and Indian Atrocities. The declining fortunes of the British in America now induced them to carry on hostilities in a more savage manner than they had previously done. The British prison ships, the most notorious of which was the *Jersey*, soon became, owing to bad food, close air, and narrow quarters, the abode of the most frightful diseases. Ten thousand men perished in these pestilential holes. To this revolting feature of the war the ferocity of the Indian was now to be added.

257. Massacre of Wyoming. One of the most beautiful spots in America was the Wyoming Valley, in Pennsylvania. In July, 1778, most of the inhabitants who could bear a musket were engaged with the regular army in fighting the enemy. A few men past the military age and many women and children were the only persons left in the valley to gather the crops. News came that a large band of Indians, with two companies of Tories, under Butler, were advancing. A small body of old men and boys, who strove to check their progress, were defeated. The helpless people fled in terror to the principal fort, and at last surrendered on condition that they should be allowed to return to their homes. The Indians and Tories falling upon them thus scattered, robbed those whom they did not butcher, and made the night hideous with the conflagration of crops, barns, and dwelling houses. Many of the inhabitants got away, only to perish of hunger in the wilds of the neighboring mountains. In retaliation, Washington in the following summer sent a force of men, under General Sullivan, into the very

heart of the country of the Iroquois. After beating the Indians in a pitched battle (August 29), Sullivan completely destroyed some of their villages. A like punishment was inflicted on the Indians in western Pennsylvania.

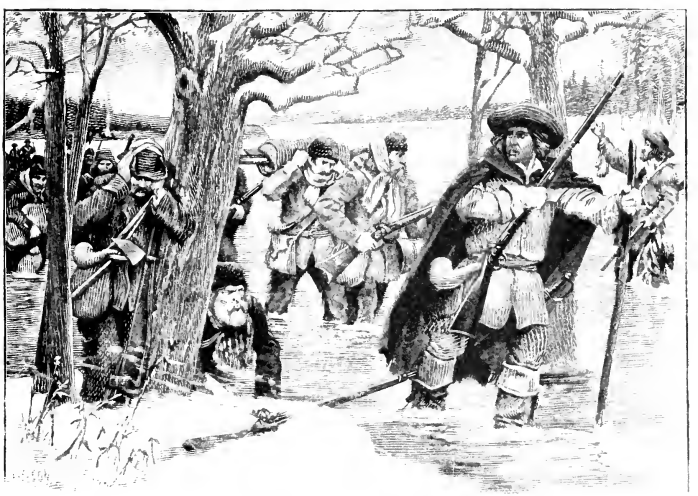
258. Capture of Vincennes. The country north of the Ohio was governed by a British officer stationed at Detroit. The Indians in this territory were prompted by the British agents

Capture of Kaskaskia

to commit depredations south of the Ohio. George Rogers Clark (§ 203) thought that if the posts in that region could be captured and held, these depredations would cease. In the spring of 1778, at the head of one hundred and fifty men, Clark drifted down the Ohio River to the mouth of the Tennessee. There he was joined by a band of hunters from the forests on the north bank, who consented to be his guides. Plunging boldly into the wilderness, the little army soon arrived in front of the fort at Kaskaskia, which they entered while a ball was going on. Vincennes also was captured.

Events of the Revolution, 1779–1780

259. Vincennes Recaptured. Hamilton, the British governor, hearing of the fall of these forts, made a rapid march from Detroit to Vincennes, and, in the absence of Clark, easily recaptured that post in January, 1779. It was now midwinter, the streams were flooded, and the greater part of the country was



March to Vincennes

covered with water several feet deep. In spite of these obstacles, Clark determined to drive the British out. He was two hundred and forty miles away. Accompanied by one hundred and thirty men, he set out for Vincennes. At times, his soldiers were compelled to wade in water up to their chins. They had few provisions, and could kill no game. In February, 1779, they arrived near the fort. So carefully had their presence been concealed, that it was not until one of the garrison had been shot down through a porthole that the enemy became

aware of the danger of their position. The British made a brave defense, but after being exposed to a continuous fire for twenty-four hours were forced to surrender. The region conquered by Clark became a part of Virginia, and was known as the "county of Illinois."

260. *French Scheme Thwarted.* In the year following the capture of Vincennes, Clark, acting under orders from Governor Jefferson, built a fort near the mouth of the Ohio, and by doing so broke up a scheme which the French had under consideration, of dividing between Spain and Great Britain all the country situated west of the Alleghanies. In 1782 the Indians from the region north of the Ohio, having invaded the country south, won a decisive victory at Blue Lick. Placing himself at the head of 1000 riflemen, Clark pursued them to their towns, and so terrible was his retaliation that Kentucky was not again molested. Colonel Shelby, by an expedition against the Chickamaugas, put a stop to all further combinations between the Indians of the South and the North.

261. Capture of Stony Point. The British were occupied in the early part of 1779 in sending out marauding expeditions from New York. General Mathews harried the coast of Virginia; General Tryon, the coast of New England. Stony Point, a post on the Hudson, was used to great advantage in harassing the surrounding country. Washington, in 1779, determined to get possession of it. The difficult undertaking was assigned to General Anthony Wayne (§ 249). Under the guidance of a negro, who was in the habit of selling strawberries to the British, his force advanced at night along a narrow causeway which led to a steep path running up to the fort. In the assault, Wayne was wounded. "Take me up," he calmly ordered, "and bear me forward, that I may die at the head of my column." With bayonets fixed, the troops rushed

into the fort on July 16. Though numbering only two hundred men, they killed, wounded, or captured six hundred of the enemy. Major Henry Lee, equal to Wayne himself in love of dangerous and brilliant enterprises, in August, 1779, captured Paulus Hook (map p. 136), and carried off one hundred and fifty-nine prisoners.

262. Naval Operations. *Privateers,* acting along with the vessels which Congress, in 1775, had ordered to be built, had, for several years, been doing great damage to British commerce. The most famous of these ships were the *Reprisal* and the *Revenge.* In 1778 Commodore John Paul Jones, a native of Scotland, in the *Ranger,* harried the coast of Great Britain, and sailing into the Firth of Forth, even threatened the city of Edinburgh.

263. *Capture of the "Serapis."* In 1779 several vessels which had been bought from the French were placed under the command of Jones. The largest was his flagship, the *Bonhomme Richard.*[1] On September 23 the American fleet came up with two British warships, the *Serapis* and the *Countess of Scarborough,* off Flamborough Head, on the English coast. The *Bonhomme Richard* at once grappled the *Serapis.* Several times both ships were in flames. The battle had been in progress about an hour when the *Bonhomme Richard* ceased firing. "Have you struck your colors?" called out the captain of the *Serapis.* "I have not yet begun to fight," Jones replied. The *Serapis* finally lowered her flag. In the meanwhile, the *Countess of Scarborough* had surrendered to another of the American ships.

264. *Attack on Castine.* Toward the end of the Revolutionary struggle, the American public navy consisted of two frigates. New England, however, continued to keep afloat

[1] Named in honor of "Poor (Goodman) Richard" of Franklin's famous Almanac.

a large number of privateers. In the effort to capture Castine, a British post in Maine, many of these privateers were either seized or destroyed by an English squadron. The land forces were compelled to beat a hasty retreat, and found their way, with great difficulty, to Massachusetts, through thick and unfrequented woods, after enduring extraordinary hardships and privations.

265. **Benedict Arnold.** *The Meeting with André.* Washington, in 1780, placed West Point, which defended the upper Hudson, under the command of General Benedict Arnold. Previous to this appointment, Arnold was stationed in Philadelphia, where he had gotten heavily into debt, and was even accused of taking the public moneys. He was sentenced to be reprimanded by Washington. This greatly stung his pride. Married recently to a Tory wife, disgraced, and weighed down with the burden of what he owed, he opened up a traitorous correspondence with General Clinton in New York. On his appointment to West Point, he renewed, with increased zeal, the negotiations for the betrayal of his country. Major John André (ahn'drā), adjutant general of the British forces, a young man of remarkable accomplishments, was sent up the Hudson in the ship *Vulture* to meet him at night on shore, and it was agreed between them that, in return for delivering up West Point, Arnold was to receive a brigadier generalship in the British army and the sum of 10,000 pounds sterling.

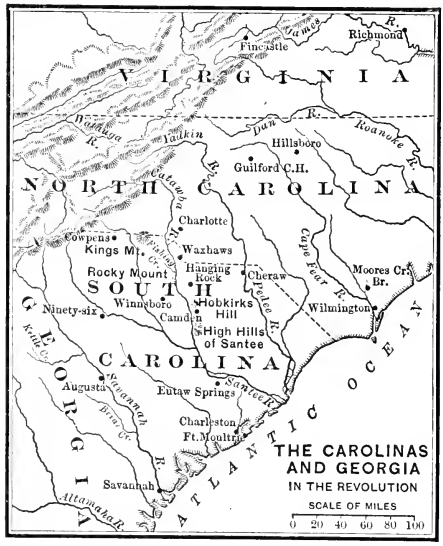
266. *Arnold Escapes.* The Americans fired upon the *Vulture*, and compelled her to drop down the stream without her passenger. André was thus forced to go back to New York by land. Near Dobbs Ferry he was stopped by three militiamen, named Paulding, Williams, and Van Wart, and ordered to dismount. André offered them his horse, watch, and purse, if they would allow him to go on. "Not for a

thousand guineas," replied Paulding. Finding suspicious papers on his person, they marched him off to North Castle. Receiving information of André's capture, Arnold escaped to the *Vulture* still lying at anchor in the river, near West Point, and thus got away safely to New York. André was tried as a spy and hanged (October 2, 1780).

267. Mutiny in the Army. To such an extent had the American paper money fallen in value by this time that forty dollars had come to have the purchasing power of only one gold dollar. A soldier's wages for one month would hardly buy food enough for a single dinner. In consequence of this fact, a mutiny broke out among the American soldiers stationed in winter quarters at Morristown. The regiments from Pennsylvania, numbering 1300 men, demanded their discharge on the ground that their time had expired. Finally, on January 1, 1781, they shouldered their muskets and set out for Philadelphia, but at Princeton they were met by a committee from the Congress, which pacified and disbanded them. Many private individuals now came forward to the immediate relief of the army. Robert Morris (§ 240) sent several thousand barrels of flour, while the ladies of Philadelphia gave $8000 and 2200 shirts.

268. Georgia and South Carolina Overrun. *Assault on Savannah.* We must now turn our eyes toward the South, where events of great importance have been taking place. Having failed to conquer either New England or the Middle States, the British determined, if possible, to regain the Southern States for the crown. The campaign began with the capture of Savannah in the winter of 1778, and in a short time the whole of Georgia had been overrun and laid waste. The upper portion of the State was wrested from the British by the victory of Colonels Pickens and Clarke at Kettle Creek (February 14, 1779), but again fell into their hands after the defeat of

the Americans at Briar Creek (March 3). Undismayed by this misfortune, General Lincoln, on October 9, made a determined attack on Savannah by land. In this he had the aid of the French, who had, a few days before, arrived in their fleet from the West Indies. Three times the French and American troops came on to storm the British intrenchments, and as often were driven back. Among those who fell mortally wounded were the brave Pulaski and Sergeant Jasper. Unable to dislodge the British, D'Estaing, the French admiral, set sail for France, while Lincoln withdrew into South Carolina.



269. *British capture Charleston.* Lincoln occupied Charleston, and began at once to put the city in a state of defense. As soon as General Clinton, in New York, heard of the departure of the French fleet, he transported by sea a large army, thoroughly equipped with cannon, to Charleston, and after a vigorous bombardment by land and water compelled it to surrender (May 12, 1780). With the capture of Lincoln's army, the Southern States were placed at the mercy of the British. In a sharp engagement at Waxhaws, in May, 1780, Colonel Tarleton, who had taken the Americans by surprise, butchered even those asking for quarter. Ninety-six, in South Carolina, and Augusta, in Georgia, strong military posts, were

soon captured. Companies of Tories were now formed, who, in only too many cases, wreaked their hatred of their patriot neighbors in massacres of indescribable atrocity.

270. The Partisan Leaders. *Sumter.* For some time the partisan corps were the only organizations resisting the British supremacy. The most famous of the partisan leaders were Sumter and Marion. Six hundred men rallied to the call of Sumter. They joined his standard — many with weapons of iron made by blacksmiths in the woods; while those who brought their hunting rifles had obtained their first supply of bullets by melting their pewter dishes. In some battles so small was the number of guns that a part of a command would have to wait until their comrades who had rifles had fallen before they began firing; or they would all go into a running fight, with a few rounds of ammunition, expecting to procure a larger supply from the pouches of the dead British soldiers. Sumter was defeated at Rocky Mount on July 30 (1780), but on August 6 won a decisive victory at Hanging Rock.

271. *Marion.* Sumter was known as the "Game Cock," Marion as the "Swamp Fox." Marion would sally forth from the green swamps, where his soldiers lay hidden, whenever he saw an opportunity to cut off a British troop scouring the country for plunder and recruits; and then, laden with booty, would return to his fenny fastnesses of cypress and liveoak.[1] As it was never certain where the wily "Swamp Fox" would break cover, a sense of constant apprehension was raised in

[1] On one occasion a British officer, who wished to make an exchange of prisoners, visited Marion's camp in the greenwood, and found him dining on roasted potatoes, served on bark, his usual fare. He was without a blanket at night, to protect him from the dew, and gave his time to his country without any expectation of payment. So deeply was the British officer impressed by such patriotism that he is said to have resigned his commission rather than aid further in the effort to conquer the Americans.

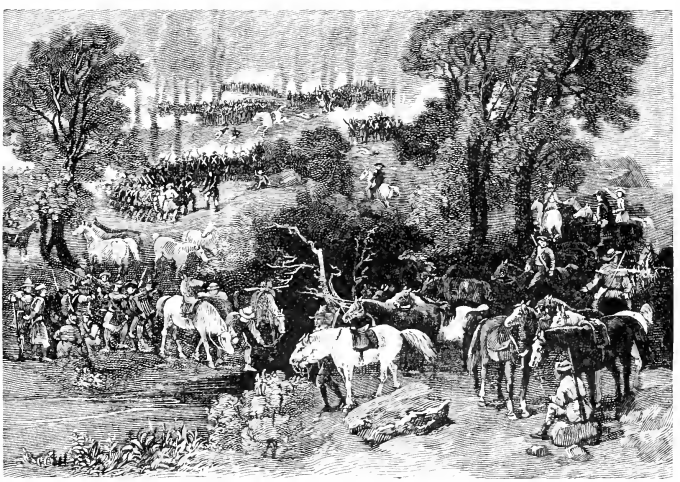
the breasts of his marauding enemies. "Light Horse" Harry Lee (§ 261) and his Legion were soon ordered South to coöperate with Sumter and Marion and the other partisan leaders, and showed themselves equal to them, on their own ground, in daring courage and quickness of movement.

One of Marion's Men

272. Battle of Camden. At this trying hour, when the only hope of rescue for the Southern patriots lay in the bravery of a few partisan bodies of troops, General Horatio Gates was appointed, against the advice of Washington, to the chief command in the South. "Beware," said General Charles Lee to him, "that your Northern laurels do not turn to Southern willows." The British army was stationed at Camden, and here, Gates, who had just made a fatiguing march through a region of pine barrens, sand hills, and swamps, decided to attack the enemy at night. The plan of attack by night had also been adopted by Cornwallis, the British general. The two armies blundered on each other in the darkness, but delayed battle until daybreak August 16, 1780. The Americans were overwhelmingly defeated, Baron de Kalb was killed, and Gates, accompanied by a few men, fled to Hillsboro in North Carolina. A few days later Sumter was beaten by Tarleton at Fishing Creek. Sumter himself only escaped by throwing himself on an unsaddled horse and dashing off without coat or hat.

273. Kings Mountain. *The Mountaineers Aroused.* Cornwallis marched as far north as Charlotte, which he described as a "hornet nest of rebels." He sent Major Fer-

guson, at the head of 1200 troops, into the western parts of the Carolinas, to encourage the Tories and overawe the patriots. Far and wide through the mountains, even as far as Fincastle in Virginia, swift messengers carried the news of the enemy's approach. Soon an army of 3000 men were assembled on the Watauga, under the command of Colonels Campbell, Sevier, Shelby, and Williams. For the most part they were dressed in hunting shirts decorated with fringe and tassel, while each soldier wore in his hat a bucktail or a sprig of evergreen.



Battle of Kings Mountain

274. *The Battle.* Ferguson set out in full retreat toward Kings Mountain. Here he took position on a level ridge covered with enormous trees but free from undergrowth. Scattered around were bowlders and masses of rock. Having picketed their horses at the foot of the mountain, the brave frontiersmen charged up in three divisions. Shot down from the limbs of trees and from behind rocks, and finding the bayonet of little use, the British soldiers were thrown into con-

fusion, and hastily retreated along the ridge. Ferguson tried in vain to rally them. One moment he was seen galloping up and down their ranks on a large white horse; the next, the horse was seen plunging wildly, without a rider, down the mountain side. The British soon surrendered (October 7). As the news of the victory flew far and wide through the country, the spirits of the patriots rose and their activity increased. Cornwallis at once abandoned North Carolina, and retreated to Winnsboro, harassed all the way by the yeomanry firing on him from behind trees and rocks. Kings Mountain was the turning-point in the war in the Southern Department.

Events of the Revolution, 1781

275. Battle of Cowpens. *General Nathanael Greene,* a skillful and cautious officer, having been appointed to take the place of Gates, assumed command of the troops at Charlotte. He soon went into camp at Cheraw, on the Pedee, as offering the best chance of cutting off British detachments and also securing American recruits. With these purposes in view, he sent General Morgan, at the head of one thousand men, into the western parts of South Carolina. On January 17, 1781, Morgan, who had made a stand on rising ground, near Cowpens, was attacked by Tarleton, dispatched by Cornwallis in pursuit of him. The first rank of the American army fired a volley and retired. The next fell back in confusion over the crest of the hill. The British charged impetuously in great disorder, only to come, suddenly and unexpectedly, upon a body of cavalry which Morgan had stationed behind the hill. The American troopers charged in turn, supported by the regulars, and the British were driven in total rout from the field with a loss about equal to the whole American force engaged. A large number of prisoners and a great quantity of stores were

captured. This was one of the most brilliant victories of the war.

276. Greene's Great Retreat. Feeling sure that the news of the battle would arouse Cornwallis to extraordinary activity, Morgan began at once to retreat toward the north. He passed the Catawba River just as the British came up on the other bank. The water was rising, and the enemy were detained for several days. Greene now joined Morgan, after galloping a distance of one hundred and fifty miles through the country. The experience at the Catawba was repeated at the Yadkin, and Greene, now at the head of his entire army, gained sufficient time to cross over the Dan into Virginia without fear of attack. Cornwallis turned back on arriving at that stream. Thus ended the American retreat through the Carolinas, one of the most masterly achievements in the military history of the Revolution. It had been conducted in the rain, over frozen roads, through a rough country broken by swollen streams, thinly peopled, and greatly lacking in supplies. Many of the soldiers were without shoes to protect their feet; and for days were able to procure but little food.

277. Guilford Courthouse. Marching back into North Carolina, Greene took position near Guilford Courthouse. Here, on March 15, he was attacked by Cornwallis. The first and second American lines in turn retired before the enemy, but the third drove the British back, until checked by volleys of grapeshot, and then slowly withdrew to a point not far from the battlefield. The British, too much crippled to pursue, retreated to Wilmington, North Carolina.

278. Operations in South Carolina. Greene followed the retreating British for about fifty miles, and then suddenly faced about for South Carolina. He sent out light detachments under Marion and Sumter, Lee and Pickens, to cut off the supplies of the British garrisons at Ninety-six and other

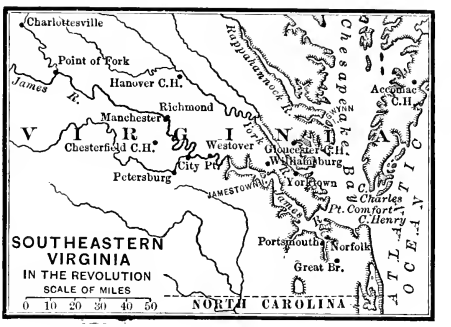
points. At Hobkirks Hill, near Camden, the American army came up with a British force under Lord Rawdon, and retired only after inflicting a heavy loss (April 25). Having laid unsuccessful siege to Ninety-six, Greene withdrew to the High Hills of Santee.[1] Marching down from there, he attacked the British at Eutaw Springs, September 8, and drove them in confusion back to their camp. Thinking that the victory was won, the Americans gave themselves up to feasting on the rich supplies they found there. The British soon returned to the assault, and compelled the Americans to retreat. In the night, however, the British stole away to Charleston.

279. Greene's Success. In a short time the British found themselves shut up in Charleston, Savannah, and Wilmington. The Southern compaign had been conducted with great wisdom by Greene. He had never won a decisive victory, but the issue of every battle had been disadvantageous to the enemy and favorable to the object for which the campaign had been planned.

280. Operations in Virginia. *Arnold and Phillips.* In January, 1781, Benedict Arnold landed at Westover, on James River, and at the head of five hundred British marched to Richmond. He there plied the torch to stores, foundries, workshops, and public buildings, and then made his way down the

[1] During the sojourn of the American troops in the encampment on the hills of Santee after the siege of Ninety-six, Greene had occasion to send an important message to Sumter. It was a dangerous mission, as the whole region was swarming with Tories. Emily Geiger, a brave young girl, volunteered to be the bearer. While she was on her way on horseback, with a letter hidden in her dress, she was halted by a band and ordered to dismount, but before they could make a search on her person for suspicious articles, she succeeded in swallowing unnoticed the piece of paper on which the message was written. Released, she rode rapidly on her way, and delivered the message to Sumter orally. Equally heroic was the conduct of Mrs. Motte. The British had taken possession of her house, and strongly fortifying it, drove out the inmates. Marion laid siege to it, but was unable to carry it by storm. Mrs. Motte urged him to set it on fire and handed him the bow and burning arrow with which this might be accomplished.

river to Portsmouth, where he awaited the arrival of General Phillips, with reënforcements from New York. In April, Phillips, accompanied by Arnold and several thousand troops, sailed up James River to City Point, and from there marched to Petersburg. Burning all the tobacco stored there, and destroying the military supplies at Chesterfield Court-house, he made his way to Manchester, opposite Richmond. Hearing that Lafayette with a large force was stationed in the latter city, Phillips retreated down the river, but returned to Petersburg, when informed that the British army, under Cornwallis, was moving northward toward that point. Here he died, and was succeeded by Arnold,[1] who withdrew to New York on Cornwallis's arrival in May.



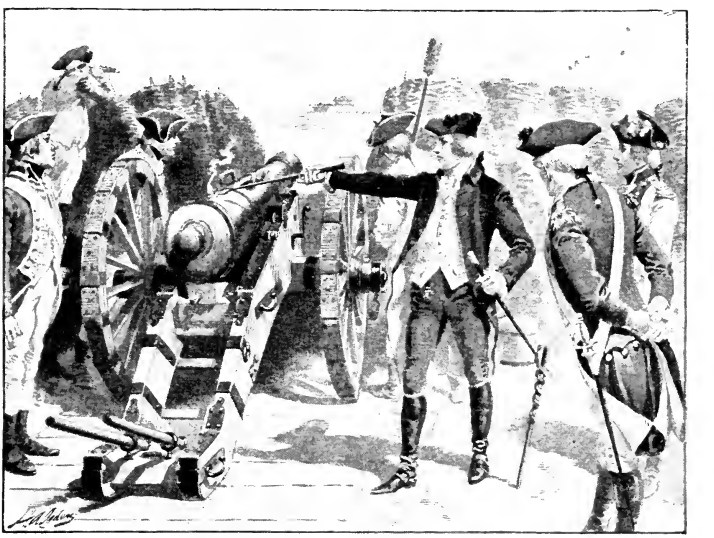
[1] While stationed at Portsmouth after his withdrawal from Richmond, Arnold was very fearful lest he might be captured either by the French fleet expected outside of the Capes, or by an American detachment coming up by land. "What will the Americans do with me, should I fall into their hands?" he asked an American prisoner. "They would amputate the leg wounded in the service of your country," was the reply, "and bury it with the honors of war; the rest of you they would hang." After his return to New York, Arnold performed his last service for the British cause in America by leading a band of Tories, refugees, and Hessians against New London in Connecticut, his native State. The expedition was marked by rapine, destruction, and pitiless cruelty. During Arnold's residence in England, letters of introduction were requested of him to prominent Americans. "I was born in America," was the melancholy reply, "I lived there to the prime of my life, but alas! I can call no man in America my friend." On one occasion, while seated in the gallery of the House of Commons, he was observed by a member who had just arisen to speak. "Mr. Speaker," said he, "I will not speak while that man is in the House."

281. *Cornwallis* had decided that, without the conquest of Virginia, it would be impossible to retain a firm grasp on the Carolinas. Owing to the number of troops Virginia was now furnishing the American armies elsewhere, the State was in no condition to offer serious resistance. Lafayette wisely retreated before the British advance. Halting at Hanover Courthouse, Cornwallis sent out marauding parties mounted on fine horses taken from the stables of the planters. Tarleton made a rush for Charlottesville, and almost succeeded in capturing the governor, Thomas Jefferson, and the Virginia legislature. Simcoe moved forward to the Point of Fork on James River and destroyed the supplies which had been collected there.

282. *British retire to Portsmouth.* It was now June. The British army slowly retired toward Williamsburg, while Lafayette followed. In crossing the ford at Jamestown Island, previous to making the passage of the river, Cornwallis was impetuously attacked by Wayne, who was under the impression that the main body of the enemy had gotten over the James. Beating off the assault, Cornwallis withdrew to Portsmouth. Later on he took position at Yorktown, as a place where he could have the protection of the British ships. In the Virginia campaign now brought to a close he had destroyed ten million dollars' worth of property and carried off 30,000 slaves.

283. The End of the Revolution. *Washington goes South.* So far, the French army under Rochambeau, 4000 strong, which had been sent out at the earnest request of Lafayette in person, had been of little service to the American cause. It was now stationed at Peekskill, on the eastern bank of the Hudson below West Point, and Morristown, where the American troops were also encamped. News reaching Washington that De Grasse, the commander of the French fleet, would sail from the West Indies for the Chesapeake in August, he laid

his plans for surrounding Cornwallis by land and sea. On August 19, at the head of the French and American forces, he crossed the Hudson without his design being known even to his own soldiers. Early in September he reached Mount Vernon, which he had not visited since the beginning of the war. Lingering there only a few days, he made his way to Williamsburg, Virginia.



At the Siege of Yorktown

284. *Cornwallis in the Toils.* In the meanwhile Lafayette had prevented Cornwallis from escaping by land, and Admiral Graves, owing to the vigilance of De Grasse, had been unable to rescue him by sea. By October 1 the investment of Yorktown by the American and French forces had been completed, while the French fleet guarded the entrance to the Capes. Governor Nelson, of Virginia, was present in the lines, and when asked what part of the town should be bombarded

first, directed the cannoneers to fire upon his own house, the finest in the place, as the probable headquarters of Cornwallis, and he offered a reward to the first man who should put a ball through the walls. On October 14 the Americans and the French carried two British redoubts. Cornwallis attempted to escape across the York, but a storm scattered his transports, and the whole body of soldiers had to be recalled to their

Surrender of Cornwallis

former intrenchments. Despairing of aid from New York, and abandoning all hope of breaking through the American lines, Cornwallis, on October 19, surrendered.

285. *The Scene at the Surrender.* When the hour for actual surrender came, the American troops, only partly in uniform, were drawn up on one side of the road, under command of Washington, while the French troops, in their brilliant military dress, were drawn up, under the command of

Rochambeau (ro shŏn bō′), on the other. Between these two lines the British soldiers, 8000 in all, passed, led by General O'Hara, in the absence of Cornwallis, who feigned to be too ill to be present. O'Hara, on coming up to Washington, offered his sword, but the American commander simply pointed to General Lincoln, who received it.[1] Washington ordered divine services to be held, and issued general orders thanking the troops for their bravery, skill, and constancy.

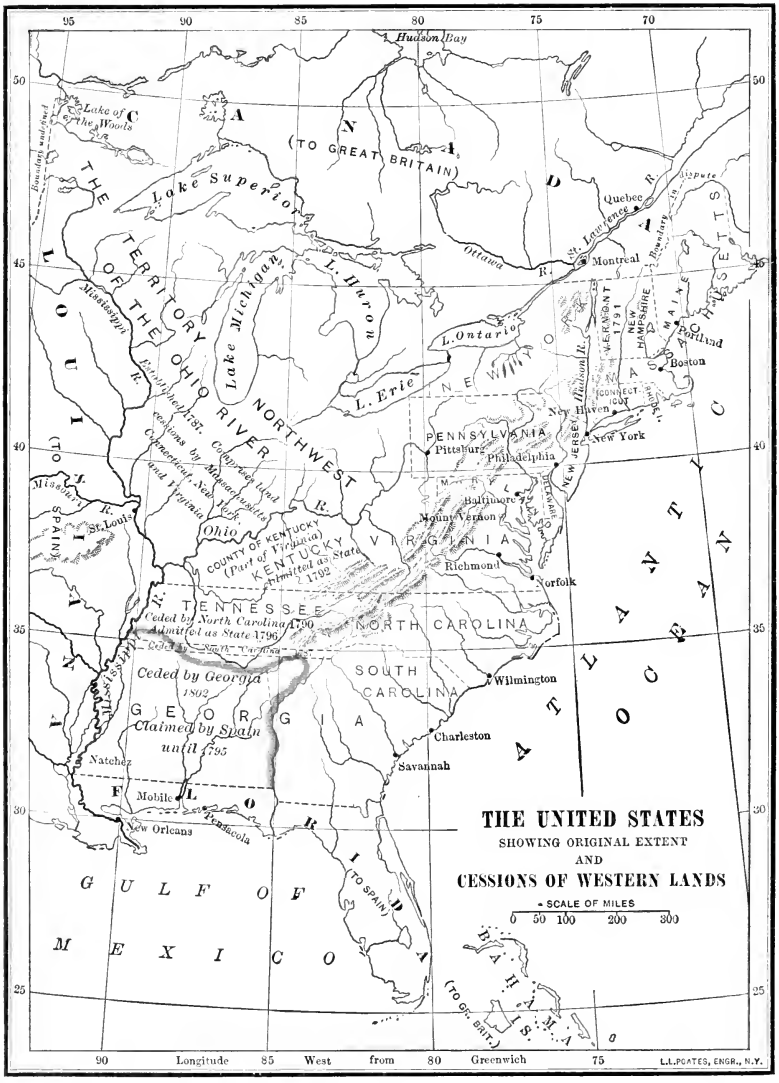
286. *Effect of the News.* The cry, "Cornwallis has surrendered!" passed almost with the swiftness of an electrical message through the country, and was received everywhere with joyful acclamations. The people danced in the streets and illuminated their houses. Congress, now in session in Philadelphia, marched in a body to church, and returned thanks to Heaven for the great triumph.[2]

Weakness of the Confederation

287. Treaty of Peace and Discontent of the Army. *Effect in England.* When Lord North, the head of the British Ministry, was informed of the surrender of Cornwallis, he opened his arms as if a pistol had been fired at his breast, and, walking in great agitation up and down the room, exclaimed wildly, "Oh, God! it is all over." North resigned, and negotiations for peace began. But it was not until September 3, 1783, that the final treaty was signed. As the United States stood at the close

[1] Lincoln was selected for the honor, as some compensation for the pain which he had undergone in a similar scene after he surrendered Charleston. As the British troops marched forward between the lines, their bands played "The World is Upside Down." When they came to lay down their arms, many threw the muskets so violently to the ground as to make them unfit for further use.

[2] The news reached Philadelphia at night: "Past one o'clock," called out the watchman, "and Cornwallis is taken." The old doorkeeper of Congress was so overwhelmed by the joyful news that it caused him to drop dead.


THE UNITED STATES
SHOWING ORIGINAL EXTENT
AND
CESSIONS OF WESTERN LANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300
Hudson Bay
BRITISH AMERICA
(TO GREAT BRITAIN)
Lake of the Woods
Lake Superior
THE TERRITORY OF THE OHIO
NORTHWEST
LOUISIANA
(TO SPAIN)
Lake Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Boundary as disputed
Mississippi R.
Boundary settled 1787.
Cessions by Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and Virginia
Ohio R.
St. Louis
Missouri R.
NEW BRITAIN
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MAINE
Portland
Boston
CONNECTICUT
New Haven
NEW YORK
New York
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
Pittsburg
Philadelphia
MARYLAND
Baltimore
Mount Vernon
VIRGINIA
Richmond
Norfolk
COUNTY OF KENTUCKY (Part of Virginia) KENTUCKY admitted as State 1792
TENNESSEE Ceded by North Carolina 1790 Admitted as State 1796
NORTH CAROLINA
Ceded by North Carolina 1790
SOUTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
Ceded by Georgia 1802
GEORGIA
Claimed by Spain until 1795
Natchez
Mobile
Pensacola
New Orleans
FLORIDA
(TO SPAIN)
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAHAMAS
(TO GR. BRIT.)
95
90
85
80
75
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50
45
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25
Longitude West from Greenwich
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

of the war, its northern boundary was Canada; its western, the Mississippi River; its southern, the territory of Florida, which had been taken by Spain during the Revolutionary War.

288. *Causes of Perplexity.* The treaty of peace had hardly been signed before new causes of perplexity arose. The pay of the soldiers was very much in arrears, and there was a party in the army which favored the seizure of what was due them, with the sword and bayonet. Another section would have gladly set up a strong military government, with Washington at its head. He was even petitioned to become king, but he repelled the suggestion with abhorrence, and it was not heard of again.

289. *Washington at Annapolis.* Having issued a farewell address to his troops, Washington, in December, 1783, at New York, took leave of his officers in person, in a scene in which all were deeply moved. The British had evacuated the city on November 25. On his way to Mount Vernon, Washington stopped first at Philadelphia, where, in settling his accounts with the government, he charged only for his actual expenses. Continuing his journey to Annapolis, there, in the State House, which overflowed with a brilliant assemblage, he surrendered into the hands of Congress, with a few modest words, the great trust which had been confided to him, and which he had carried through with a degree of wisdom, skill, fidelity, constancy, and integrity rarely shown in the history of mankind.

290. Political Condition. *The Northwestern Country.* Maryland had declined to join the Confederation until the States holding the northwestern country should cede this vast territory to the United States, as she alleged that the possession of such an empire would give these States an overwhelming importance. Virginia, anxious that the Confederation should succeed, agreed in January, 1781, to cede to the United States all the region now included in Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Wiscon-

sin, and a part of Michigan. New York had the year before agreed to make a similar cession, and the other States[1] having claims to western lands soon followed the example of New York and Virginia.

Shays's Rebellion

291. *Interstate Dissensions.* Now that all fear of British conquest had passed away, Congress had lost its influence and power over the States. The Confederation became the weakest of leagues. So bitter was the contention between some of

[1] Virginia claimed the region north of the Ohio, by virtue of her charter of 1609 (§ 81) and the conquest by George Rogers Clark. Massachusetts, Connecticut, the two Carolinas, and Georgia also asserted title to western territory because of their charters. The claim of New York was based on purchases from the Indians in the valley of the Ohio.

the States over questions of disputed territory and boundaries, and interstate import duties, that little concert of action for the general good was to be expected. Wrangles between citizen and citizen about the settlement of debts in the depreciated paper currency issued for the purpose by all the States, except Virginia, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, intensified the prevailing animosities. A mob of farmers in the western part of Massachusetts, under the leadership of Daniel Shays, undertook to prevent the collection of debts by process of court, and at one time even threatened to overturn the State government. The situation was further aggravated by the prospect of a conflict of arms with Spain about the true boundary of the United States in the southwest and the navigation of the Mississippi River.

Adoption of the Constitution

292. The first step toward a closer union of the States was taken when a resolution drawn by Madison was offered in the Virginia legislature, in 1786, looking to the calling of a convention, made up of delegates from all the States, in order to lay down a uniform system in their commercial relations. This convention met at Annapolis in the same year, and recommended that a convention of all the States should be held in Philadelphia in May, 1787. The object of this convention was intended to be to give the government of the United States power to raise revenue independently of the separate States, and also to regulate the commercial intercourse between them. When the convention met, with George Washington as its president, its labors took a much broader scope. Its object soon came to be to set up a government which would (1) preserve peace at home; (2) defend the country from foreign attack; (3) maintain local government in the States; and (4) establish free trade between them.

293. Compromises. Virginia was in favor of a Congress made up of two chambers, both elected on the basis of population. This would have given the superiority in power to the large States; the small States, therefore, objected to it, and as a compromise the plan was adopted of granting an equal number of representatives to all the States in the Senate, and a representation in the House according to population. The great slave States, which by this arrangement would, because fewer in number, have been outvoted in the Senate by the States which had not many slaves, demanded that, in estimating population for representation in the House, all the negro bondsmen should be counted. The struggle between North and South over this point ended in the second great compromise — a three-fifths representation was allowed for slaves.

294. Character of the Constitution. The Constitution finally framed, September 17, 1787, was an instrument in which all the powers not expressly given to the general government were reserved to the States themselves. The chief powers delegated by the instrument to the general government were: (1) To lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises; (2) to borrow money; (3) to regulate commerce between the States, and with foreign nations; (4) to make foreigners, settling in this country, citizens; (5) to coin money; (6) to establish post offices and post-roads; (7) to grant copyrights and patents; (8) to declare war; (9) to raise armies and navies; (10) to make all laws necessary for executing its powers.

295. Influences favoring Adoption. It was provided that the Constitution should go into operation as soon as nine States had ratified it. Eleven ratified it by 1788, but it was not until 1790 that Rhode Island, which had been the last to hold out against it, gave her consent. Madison had been foremost in the convention in the framing of the instrument, and, together with Hamilton and Jay, had urged its ratification in a series of

papers of remarkable ability, known as the Federalist; but that it was finally accepted by all the States was largely due to the earnest support it received from Washington.

296. Northwest Territory Ordinance. In 1787 an ordinance was adopted by Congress for the future administration of the affairs of the Northwest Territory (§ 290). Some of its articles were of extraordinary importance, such, for instance, as those providing for (1) the advancement of popular education; (2) the prohibition of slavery (a regulation due to the foresight of Jefferson); (3) the establishment of entire religious freedom; and (4) the future division of the territory into three or five States, with all the rights enjoyed by the original thirteen.

297. General Conditions of the United States. *The population* at the time of the ratification of the Constitution was about 4,000,000, of which number hardly 100,000 lived west of the Alleghanies. The Iroquois still occupied the country west of Schenectady. Philadelphia, the largest town in the North, had about 30,000 people; Charleston, the largest in the South, 17,000. The streets were still unlighted; the pump and well still supplied the residents with their water; wood was still the fuel burned on the hearth. The means of sending letters had become safer and more frequent. Stagecoaches plied daily between Philadelphia and New York, and weekly between New York and Boston; but the best route to the South was still by sea. The experiments of Fitch with the steamboat, in 1787, proved to be of no practical use.

298. *Education.* As early as 1775 Jefferson had planned a system of public education, in which there was to be a graded ascent: (1) the district school, (2) the high school, (3) the university. This system was to be supported by general taxation, and its benefits were to be enjoyed free of expense. Both Pennsylvania and North Carolina inserted clauses in their constitutions providing for public education. Georgia had

opened free county schools in 1777 and in 1784 had built a State university. In 1795 the public school system of New York was established by George Clinton. Transylvania Academy in Kentucky, Davidson Academy in North Carolina, and Blount College in Tennessee, were all founded before the close of the century.

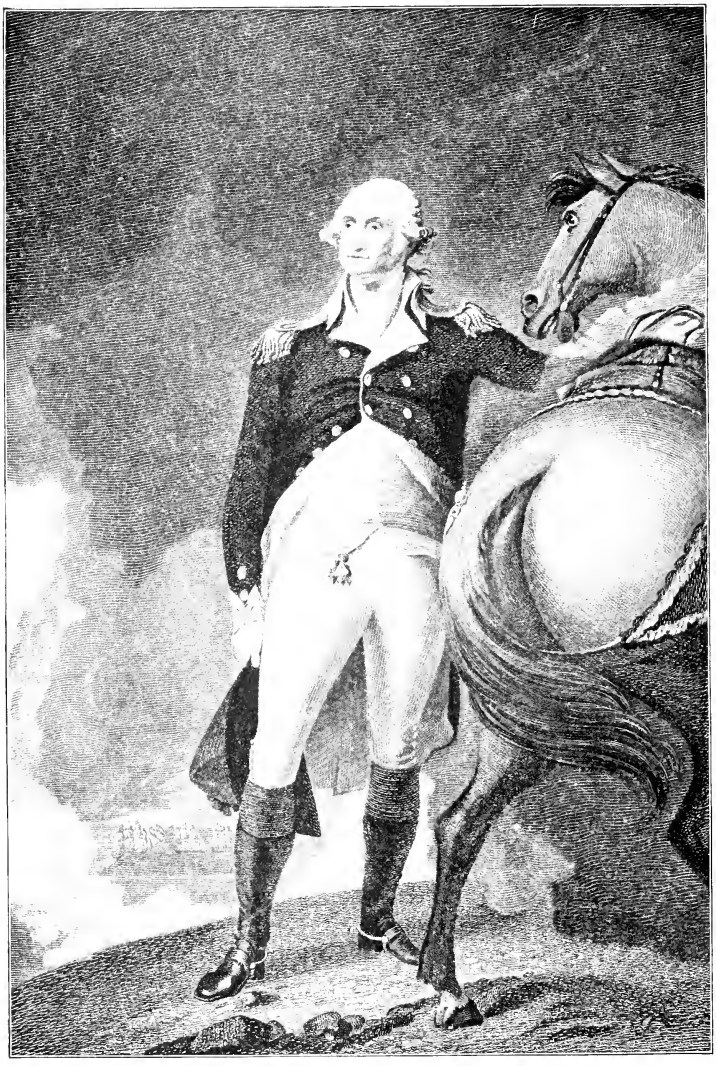
Early Stage Travel

299. *Slaves.* In 1780 the slave population of the United States numbered about 500,000. By the time the Constitution was ratified the Northern States, except New York and New Jersey, finding the institution of slavery unprofitable, on account of their peculiar soil and climate, had adopted measures looking to gradual emancipation. From an early period Virginia had tried in vain to impede the slave trade, only to have every act of her Assembly annulled by the British government, because the traffic in negroes, in which even royalty profited, had been so great a source of wealth. The slave trade would have been abolished by the convention adopting the Constitution, but for the influence of Georgia and South Carolina, combined with that of the New England States, many of whose shipmasters were engaged in bringing in negroes. Its abolition was put off until 1808.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD IV

INDEPENDENCE AND CONFEDERATION.

- I. War of Independence, 1776.
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Battle of Long Island.
    2. Battle of Harlem Heights.
    3. Battle of White Plains.
    4. Fort Washington captured.
    5. Retreat across New Jersey.
    6. Battle of Trenton.
  - 2. Civil Events.
    1. Congress asks aid of France.
    2. Morris aids Army.
- II. War of Independence, 1777.
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Battle of Princeton.
    2. Battle of Bennington.
    3. Battle of Brandywine.
    4. Fall of Philadelphia.
    5. Battles near Saratoga.
    6. Burgoyne's Surrender.
    7. Valley Forge.
  - 2. Civil Events.
    1. Franklin in France.
- III. War of Independence, 1778.
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Battle of Monmouth.
    2. Wyoming Massacre.
    3. Clarke invades Northwest.
    4. Capture of Savannah.
  - 2. Civil Events.
    1. Alliance with France.
    2. Conway Cabal.
    3. British Overtures for Peace.
- IV. War of Independence, 1779–1880.
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Capture of Stony Point.
    2. Indians defeated.
    3. Victory over *Serapis*.
    4. Arnold's Treason.
    5. André executed.
    6. Defeat at Savannah, Ga.
    7. British capture Charleston.
    8. Battle of Camden.
    9. Battle of Kings Mountain.
  - 2. Civil Events.
    1. County of Illinois formed.
- V. War of Independence, 1781–1783.
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Mutiny among Troops.
    2. Arnold invades Virginia.
    3. Battle of Cowpens.
    4. Battle of Guilford C. H.
    5. Battle of Eutaw Springs.
    6. Cornwallis invades Virginia.
    7. Cornwallis surrenders.
    8. Battle of Blue Lick.
    9. Washington resigns his Commission.
  - 2. Civil Events.
    1. Virginia cedes Western Lands.
    2. Treaty of Peace.
- VI. Adoption of the Constitution.
  - 1. Failure of the Confederation.
    1. Discontent of Soldiers.
    2. Animosities between States.
    3. Popular Discontent.
    4. Shays's Rebellion.
    5. Danger of Conflict with Spain.
  - 2. First Steps.
    1. Virginia calls Commercial Convention.
    2. Commercial Convention calls Constitutional Convention.
    3. Convention meets.
  - 3. Compromise.
    1. Protection for Small States.
    2. Protection for Slave States.
  - 4. Character of Constitution.
    1. Powers granted to National Government.
    2. Powers reserved to States.
- VII. Condition of the People at the Adoption of the Constitution.



George Washington

PERIOD V. UNDER THE CONSTITUTION — UNION

Washington's Administration, 1789–1797[1]

300. Washington's Inauguration. When the time came to put the Constitution in force, all eyes turned to Washington, as

[1] George Washington was born February 22, 1732, and died December 14, 1799. He was educated by his mother, a woman of a Roman type of character. From his early years he was used to the manly and health-giving sports and amusements of the country, and when a mere boy, became a leader in them all. Adopting, when very young, the profession of a surveyor, he learned all the arts of a frontiersman in exploring the vast domain of Lord Fairfax, who had inherited the grant of the Northern Neck, extending on the west to the Shenandoah valley and beyond. The part he took in the French and Indian War, 1754–1763, and the war of the Revolution has already been related. On leaving the presidency, he withdrew to his princely estate, Mount Vernon, where he spent the short remaining portion of his life, engaged in the pursuits which interested him most, — riding, hunting, and superintending his farms. His style of life was generous and aristocratic. Although he himself preferred horseback as a means of getting about, his family traveled in a coach and four, with postilions in livery. Mount Vernon, which he had inherited from his brother, was a seat of hospitality where the most distinguished people in America, and many celebrated guests from abroad, were entertained; but this did not interfere with the owner's simple habits of living. He arose at an early hour, breakfasted plainly, rode over his estates, and retired for the night at ten o'clock. In person, Washington was as tall and erect as an Indian: in manner formal and dignified. He rarely unbent, though at times capable of strong anger. His judgment was the most unerring, his probity the most unswerving. It is one of the greatest of our national blessings that we have such a figure in the forefront of our history. "Until time shall be no more," wrote Lord Brougham, "a test of the progress which our race has made in wisdom and virtue will be derived from the veneration paid to the immortal name of Washington." He died as he lived, master of himself. "I die hard," said he, "but I am not afraid to go."

best fitted by character and reputation to be the first presiding officer of the new Republic. He received the vote of every member of the electoral college,[1] and John Adams, having the next highest number, the two were proclaimed President and Vice President respectively In his journey to New York for his inauguration (April, 1789), Washington found the way strewn with flowers, and he was greeted everywhere with the loudest acclamations. His arrival in that city was marked by an enthusiasm and magnificence without example in the previous history of America.

301. The leading members of Washington's Cabinet[2] were Jefferson and Hamilton, who, owing to the antagonism of their political principles, were pitted against each other like two gamecocks in a main. Jefferson believed in increasing the power of the State governments, as the strongest fortification against the possible tyranny of the central government. Hamilton believed in one centralized, sovereign nation, as opposed to a league of sovereign commonwealths.

302. Hamilton's Policy. As Secretary of the Treasury, Hamilton proposed that the United States should issue bonds in payment of the debts contracted in support of the war by the Confederation and by the different States. How was the revenue to meet the interest on these bonds to be raised? By a moderate tariff laid on imports, which would also afford

[1] The people do not vote directly for President and Vice President. In our times, each political party nominates a set of electors in each State. The set chosen by the popular majority cast the vote of the State for the nominees of their party convention. In 1788 the legislatures of some of the States appointed the electors for their States. The idea of the founders of our government was, that the "College of Electors," as it was called, would select the best man in the country for President, regardless of party sympathy. It was on this principle that the electors acted in the choice of Washington.

[2] At first there were only three departments, Foreign Affairs, War, and the Treasury. The officers filling these positions, together with the Attorney General, made up the Cabinet.

protection to American manufactures. The party led by Jefferson made no objection to the United States paying the debts of the Confederation, but where, they asked, is the authority in the Constitution for the national assumption of the State debts? In that clause, replied Hamilton, which gives to Congress "the right to make laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the powers vested, by this Constitution, in the government of the United States." The assumption of the State debts was necessary, if public confidence was to be restored and the new government put in operation. Such a liberal construction of the clause, answered Jefferson, would soon swallow up all the powers which the States have reserved for themselves. Only a strict construction, he declared, could prevent the government from becoming a centralized tyranny.

Alexander Hamilton

303. Federalists and Republicans. Hereafter there were arrayed against each other two great parties, namely, the Federalists and the Republicans, one advocating a liberal, the other a strict, construction of this, the elastic clause of the Constitution. The disputed question as to the national assumption of the State debts was settled by compromise. About this time it was to be decided in Congress whether the new capital city should be built on the Delaware River or on the Potomac. The Northern members, who represented the communities in which the State debts were chiefly held, favored the Delaware, but they voted for the Potomac,[1] in

[1] The District of Columbia was ceded by Maryland and Virginia as the seat for the national capital. The tract covered ground about ten miles square. The portion given by Virginia was afterward ceded back to that State.

consideration that the Southern members would agree to the United States assuming the debts of the States. The corner stone of the Capitol was laid in 1793, by Washington, after whom the new city was named, but it was not until 1800 that the city became the seat of government.

304. National Bank and Whisky Insurrection. For the financial convenience of the government, Hamilton recommended that a charter should be granted to a bank with a capital of $10,000,000, and that the United States should be admitted as one of the partners. Finding that the import duties did not bring in enough revenue, he got Congress to pass an act imposing a tax on liquors. This led, in 1794, to what was known as the "Whisky Insurrection" in Pennsylvania, a State largely engaged in the manufacture of spirits. A large body of militia was sent to suppress the tumult.

305. The Invention of the Cotton Gin. The value of slave property in the South was enormously increased by Eli Whitney's invention, in 1793, of the cotton gin, by which, it was estimated, two hundred times more progress in removing the seed from the fiber of the staple could be made in one day than could be made in the same length of time by the old process of hand. His invention caused cotton planting to become profitable, and thus had an extraordinary influence in strengthening the institution of slavery in the Southern States. Whitney was a school teacher who had come to Georgia from Massachusetts.

306. Indian Wars. In 1790 General Harmer led an expedition against the Indians of the Northwest, who had risen up against the whites, but was defeated in two battles. In the following year General St. Clair marched as far as the head waters of the Wabash (map p. 120), and was there attacked and completely routed. Many of his men gave themselves up to

such headlong flight, that in twenty-four hours they traversed ground which, in the advance, had taken them two weeks to pass over. It was not until 1794 that General Wayne was able to break the power of the Indians. After defeating them on the Maumee, he ravaged their whole country. The southern half of Ohio was thus left in a state for its free and safe settlement by the whites.

307. A Second Term. Although Washington was anxious to lay down office at the close of his first term, the popular voice insisted upon his reëlection, with Adams still as Vice President. He was inaugurated on March 4, 1793.

308. Foreign Affairs. *Genet.* The French Revolution was now under way. The Republicans, the followers of Jefferson, who were a majority of the people, were anxious that the United States should give active aid to the French in their war with England. In April, 1793, Genet (zhe nā'), the new French minister, arrived at Charleston. He had the presumption to send out privateers, as if he were still in France, and to order their captains to bring into American ports, for condemnation by the French consuls, all prizes they should seize on the ocean. Washington issued a proclamation of neutrality. Genet openly defied it, and threatened to appeal to the people. Washington demanded of France that he should be recalled.

309. *Jay's Treaty.* Popular feeling now ran strongly against Great Britain on account of her seizing American ships bound for French ports, and carrying off, even from American men-of-war, sailors who were claimed to be British deserters. To avert hostilities, Chief Justice Jay was sent to England, in 1794, to settle the questions in dispute. Under the treaty entered into, Great Britain agreed to abandon, by 1796, all the posts she was holding in the boundaries of the United States and to give compensation for damage done by her cruisers. In

return, the United States promised that all debts due British citizens before the Revolution should be paid. There was no provision to put a stop to the impressment of American sailors. So unpopular was this treaty, that Jay was burned in effigy in many parts of the country.[1]

Washington's Home at Mt. Vernon

310. Election of Adams. Washington delivered a farewell address, and, declining a third election, retired to Mount Vernon when his term came to an end, leaving the country in a state of great prosperity. He was succeeded by John Adams. Jef-

[1] A treaty with Spain about this time allowed the people in the Mississippi Valley to float their produce to New Orleans — now, with the country down to the mouth of the river, a Spanish possession — and there transship it after paying a small duty. The same treaty fixed the northern boundary of Florida, which had previously been in dispute.

ferson became Vice President. Adams was one of the leaders of the Federalist party, and as such was strongly opposed in political opinion to Jefferson.

John Adams's Administration, 1797–1801 [1]

311. Foreign Affairs. *Controversy with France.* France, at this time, was under the government of the Directory, and had given great offense to the United States by seizing American ships, on the ground that they were carrying English goods. An audience was refused the American envoys, but they were told secretly that, on the payment of $250,000 by the United States, the differences complained of would be settled. "Not one cent for tribute," Pinckney, one of the envoys, is said to have replied. Congress promptly gave the President authority to raise twelve regiments of infantry and cavalry, and to build twelve vessels. Washington was appointed commander in chief. In February, 1799, Commodore Truxton captured the French frigate *L'Insurgeant*, and silenced *La Vengeance*, which, how-

John Adams

[1] John Adams was born in 1735, and died in 1826. He was a member of the first Continental Congress, and, as a member of the second, urged the nomination of Washington as commander in chief of the army; and in a three days' debate secured the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, which he had assisted in drafting. In 1778 he filled the post of minister to France; and after serving as one of the commissioners to draw up the treaty of peace with Great Britain, in 1783, was appointed the first American Minister to that country. With more or less truth he was accused of being prejudiced, hot-tempered, and egotistic, but his integrity and patriotism have been universally acknowledged.

ever, setting full sail, escaped. Many prizes were also made by the American schooner *Enterprise*. The Directory having been succeeded by Napoleon Bonaparte, all grounds of controversy between the two governments were finally settled.

312. Alien and Sedition Acts. During the progress of the controversy with France, the Alien and Sedition Acts were passed by Congress. The Alien Act empowered the President to banish any foreigner whose presence was thought to be dangerous to the government. The Sedition Act made it a crime to write, print, or publish any matter — false, scandalous, and malicious — against the President, or any member of either house of Congress. It was charged, at the time, that these acts were passed not so much to suppress the activity of French emissaries in the United States, as to drive away a number of able Republican writers of foreign birth, who were doing much damage to the prospects of the Federalist party.

313. Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. The Republican party claimed that these acts violated those clauses of the Constitution guaranteeing liberty of speech and freedom of the press. The legislature of Kentucky adopted, in the sessions of 1798–1799, two sets of resolutions, the one prepared, the other inspired, by Jefferson, in which it was affirmed that the Constitution was a mere compact or treaty between the States; and that if any State thought an act of Congress to be in violation of the Constitution, this act, so far as she was concerned, was as if it had never been passed. The resolutions of the Virginia legislature (1798), drawn by Madison, were substantially of the same tenor. All the legislatures of the States north of the Potomac expressed disapproval of these doctrines.

314. Election of Jefferson. Adams was a candidate for reëlection, and his principal opponent was Jefferson, the leader of the Republican party, which had vastly increased in numbers. By the original Constitution, the presidential electors each

voted for two persons, without designating which was voted for as President and which as Vice President. When the votes of the electors were counted, it was found that Jefferson had obtained seventy-three, Aaron Burr seventy-three, and Adams only sixty-five. Jefferson and Burr having secured the same number of votes, the rule of declaring the person receiving the greatest number, President, and the person receiving the next greatest, Vice President, could not be followed. The question had now to be decided by a vote of States in the House of Representatives. As twelve States pronounced in favor of Jefferson, and only four in favor of Burr, Jefferson was declared to be elected President, and Burr, Vice President. The Constitution was soon amended, providing for a separate vote for the two officers in the electoral colleges.

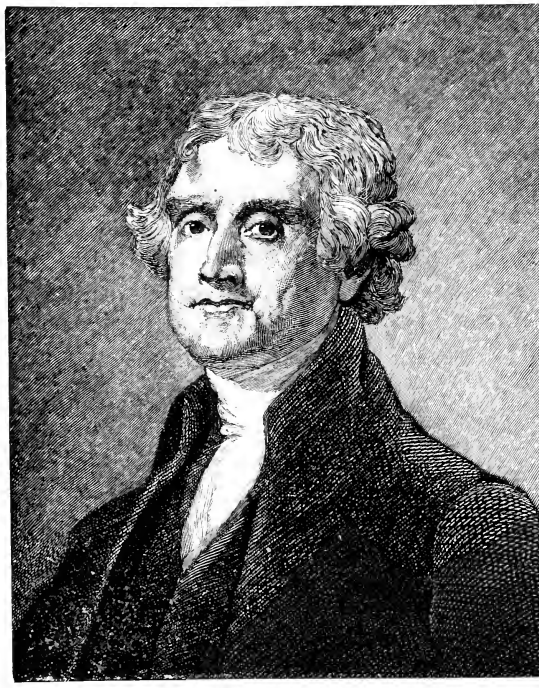
Jefferson's Administration, 1801–1809[1]

315. The Democracy. During the administration some notable changes in suffrage took place. Hitherto the basis of the suffrage had been the possession of property, and the people had been content to leave the exercise of political power to a few men; but from this time there was less restriction upon

[1] Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia in 1743 and died in 1826. Previous to his elevation to the presidency, he had won great distinction, and filled many high offices, — had drafted the Declaration of Independence and the Virginia statute for maintaining religious freedom; had been governor of his native State, Minister to France, Secretary of State, and Vice President. An aristocrat by birth and training and in his personal associations, he was yet the founder of American democracy and the idol of the common people; the owner of many slaves, he was the advocate of freedom as the inborn right of all; the encourager of simple tastes and plain living, he resided in perhaps the most beautiful house in the United States, and entertained on a scale as notable for its elegance as for its liberality; the strict economist in the management of the public affairs, he died a bankrupt in consequence of his neglect of his own large fortune. A true Republican, a genuine friend of humanity, he made an impression on American institutions second only to that of Washington.

the right to vote imposed by the various state legislatures, and a greater desire was shown by the masses to take part in the administration of public affairs.

316. Economic Affairs. *The population* of the United States was now 5,308,483. Of this number, about 1,000,000 were slaves, of which over 950,000 were in the South. Philadelphia had now a population of 41,220. Its streets were paved, and at night, lighted; and water was supplied to the citizens by means of pipes tapping streams flowing outside of the boundaries of the town. A like improvement was to be observed in New York, Boston, Baltimore, and Charleston.

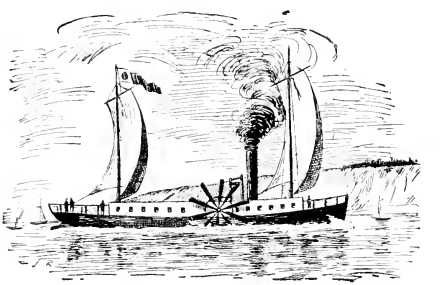


Thomas Jefferson

317. *Manufactures.* Agriculture was still the chief pursuit of the bulk of the people, but commerce was rapidly growing in the Middle as well as in the New England States. In

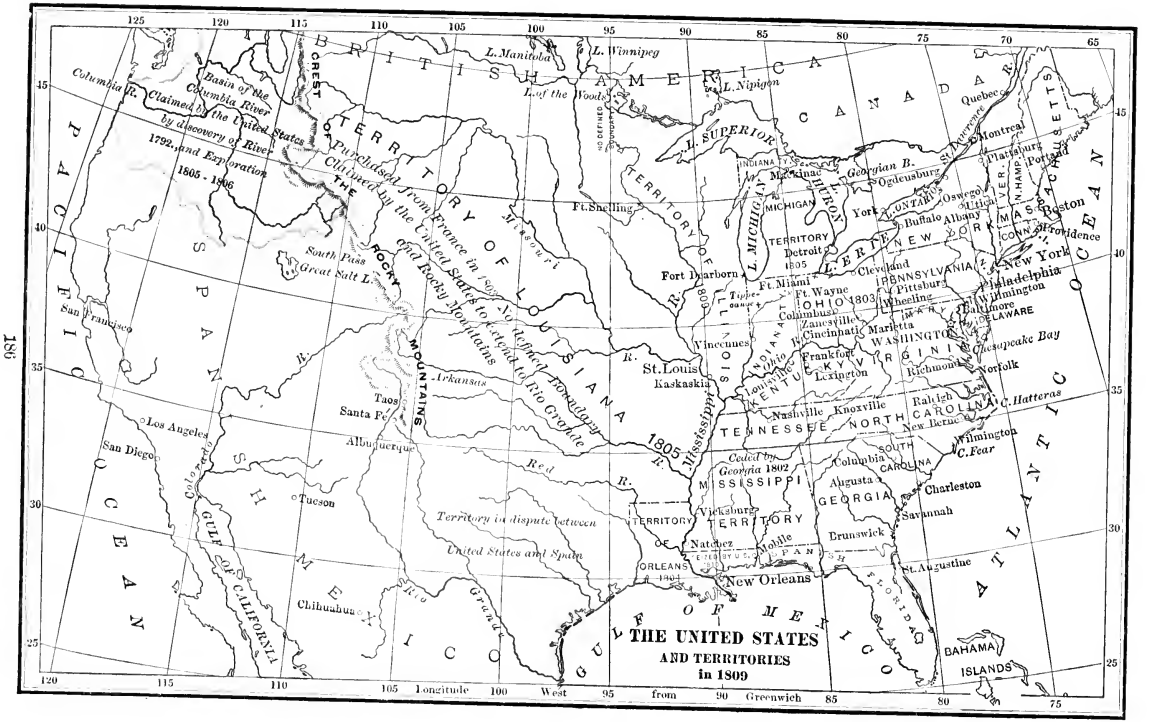
the latter, only spinning mills had as yet been erected, but there a great variety of small articles were already made. It was not until 1812 that the first weaving mill was built at Waltham, Massachusetts. Pennsylvania had already begun to erect a few iron mills.

318. *Transportation.* In all the older parts of the original thirteen States good post-roads were to be found. The only public stage in the South was run between Savannah and Charleston, but there were many stage lines in the North. In 1807 the *Clermont*, a small side-wheel steamer, the invention of Robert Fulton, who had gotten the first hint from Rumsey and Fitch (§ 297), made the voyage from New York to Albany. The success of this experiment soon brought the steamboat into general use.



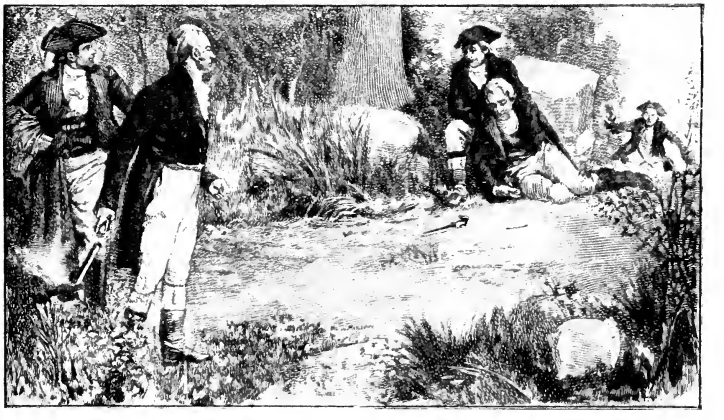
Fulton's First Steamboat

319. Purchase of Louisiana. In 1800 Spain ceded Louisiana to France. Napoleon acquired Louisiana, which took in the practically unexplored territory drained by the Mississippi River, west of that stream, in the hope of restoring French power in the western hemisphere, but the prospect was blasted by the certainty that war would soon break out between France and Great Britain. Becoming fearful lest the entire region should fall into British hands, he sold the whole of it to the United States in 1803 for $15,000,000 and a relinquishment of debts due by French citizens to citizens of the United States amounting to $15,000,000 more. This purchase more than doubled the area of the United States. It was Jeffer-


THE UNITED STATES
AND TERRITORIES
in 1809
Longitude West from Greenwich
Basin of the Columbia River Claimed by the United States by discovery of River 1792, and Exploration 1805 - 1806
Purchased from France in 1803
Claimed by the United States to extend to Rio Grande
No definite Boundary
Territory in dispute between United States and Spain
Ceded by Georgia 1802
Ceded by Indians 1805
Ceded by Indians 1809
TERRITORY OF LOUISIANA
TERRITORY OF MICHIGAN
TERRITORY OF ORLEANS
TERRITORY OF MISSISSIPPI
INDIANA TY.
ILLINOIS TY.
MISSOURI TY.
BRITISH AMERICA
CANADA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SPANISH MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
L. Manitoba
L. Winnipeg
L. of the Woods
L. Nipigon
L. SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
Columbia R.
Colorado R.
Rio Grande
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Ft. Shelling
Fort Dearborn
St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Vincennes
Ft. Miami
Ft. Wayne
Detroit
Michilimackinac
Green Bay
Ogdensburg
Sackets Harbor
Oswego
Mich.
York
Buffalo
Albany
Boston
Providence
New York
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Baltimore
Chesapeake Bay
Norfolk
Cleveland
Pittsburg
Wheeling
Marietta
Cincinnati
Zanesville
Columbus
Frankfort
Lexington
Richmond
Nashville
Knoxville
Raleigh
C. Hatteras
New Bern
Wilmington
C. Fear
Columbia
Augusta
Charleston
Savannah
Brunswick
Mobile
New Orleans
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Natchez
Vicksburg
Tuscaloosa
Huntsville
Montreal
Quebec
Portland
Plattsburg
St. Lawrence R.
Lake Champlain
Hudson R.
Delaware
Pennsylvania
Ohio
Kentucky
Tennessee
Virginia
Maryland
Connecticut
Massachusetts
Vermont
New Hampshire
New York
Georgia
Carolina
Florida
Mississippi
Louisiana
Indiana Ty.
Illinois Ty.
Missouri Ty.
Michigan
Territory
Orleans
Territory
Mississippi
Territory
Bahama Islands
Santa Fe
Taos
Albuquerque
Tucson
Chihuahua
San Francisco
Los Angeles
San Diego
South Pass
Great Salt L.
Rocky Mountains
Arkansas
Red
Rio Grande
Colorado
Gulf of California
Spanish Mexico
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
Gulf of Mexico
Bahama Islands

son's expectation that it would give the American people control of the continent, and would in future tend to shut out all danger of foreign complications on American soil.

320. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, two army officers from Virginia, in 1804, led an exploring party up the Missouri River to its sources, crossed the chain of the Rocky Mountains, and reached the mouth of the Columbia in 1805. This exploring expedition through an almost unknown region returned in safety to its starting point, St. Louis, in 1806. It was undertaken at the instance of President Jefferson, and together with the voyage which Captain Gray of Boston had made to the Columbia, in 1792, gave the United States a claim to all the territory covered by the States of Washington, Ore-



Duel between Burr and Hamilton

gon, and Idaho. Another exploring party under Lieutenant Zebulon Pike was dispatched in 1805, to the unknown sources of the Mississippi, and afterward across the plains to the Rocky Mountains of Colorado.

321. Death of Hamilton. In July, 1804, Alexander Hamilton was killed in a duel by Aaron Burr, the Vice President.

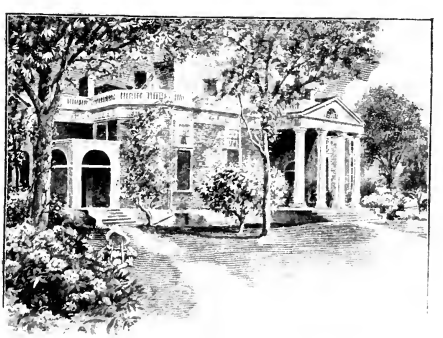
Burr at once lost favor with all parties. After the close of his term, a vague scheme, either to set up a separate government west of the Alleghanies, or to found an empire in Texas and Mexico, entered his brain. In a tour of the western territory he stopped at the home of Herman Blennerhasset, a British subject, who had erected a beautiful residence on an island (of the same name) in the Ohio River; and here his plans were more carefully formed, with the approval of his host. Continuing his journey, he gathered together a force of armed men and transported them down the Mississippi River. He was arrested at Natchez, released, rearrested, and carried to Richmond, where he was tried for treason, but acquitted for lack of evidence. Burr, whose reputation was ruined by this enterprise, died in New York City in obscurity and poverty. Blennerhasset also was arrested, and before he could obtain his release his creditors, taking possession of his island home, converted his mansion into an agricultural storehouse and his ornamental grounds into a hemp field.

322. Foreign Affairs. *War with Tripoli.* For many years the Barbary Powers had been doing damage to the commerce of all nations whose vessels entered the Mediterranean Sea. The United States during Washington's administration had agreed to pay an annual tribute in order to put a stop to their attacks on American shipping. Jefferson declined to pay the tribute, and this led to a war with Tripoli. In 1803 Commodore Preble was sent thither with a fleet, but it was not until 1805 that the bey would release the American prisoners and sue for peace.[1]

[1] Captain Bainbridge, in the *Philadelphia*, in chasing the pirates too near the shore, ran aground, and the enemy soon took possession of his ship. Stephen Decatur, manning a small schooner, permitted her to float, as if in distress, to the side of the *Philadelphia;* the crew then, leaping on board, forced the pirates into the sea, set fire to the vessel, and came off in the midst of a heavy cannonade from the batteries on shore.

323. *American Carrying Trade Obstructed.* The war now going on between Great Britain, France, and Spain fell with peculiar heaviness on the carrying trade of New England. Great Britain would allow no American vessel to convey any commodities to Europe either directly or indirectly, by way of the United States, from any of the Spanish or French West Indies. It was only by first stopping in a British port, and there paying a duty on their cargoes, that American ships, sailing from any American port to any European port, under the power of Napoleon, the French emperor, could secure exemption from capture by British vessels. Napoleon, in retaliation, issued two decrees that all ships containing English merchandise, or touching at any British port, whether American or otherwise, should be seized on their arrival in any of the Continental harbors. In consequence of the British and French policy, the Americans lost many vessels.

324. *Embargo Act.* Great Britain still claimed the right to overhaul all American vessels for English deserters. The American frigate, the *Chesapeake*, refusing to submit to search in 1807, was fired upon by the British man-of-war, the *Leopard*, and forced to strike her colors. Four of her sailors were carried off. Jefferson issued a proclamation forbidding all British war ships from entering the waters of the United States. This proving insufficient, the Embargo Act was passed (1807) ordering



Jefferson's Home at Monticello

American vessels not to leave American ports. As this act cut the United States off from all foreign markets, it aroused strong opposition and was openly evaded. As a substitute, the Non-intercourse Act was adopted in 1809. This forbade trade with England and France, but allowed commercial exchange to go on with other nations.

325. Election of Madison. Jefferson's second administration ended with a great decline in the prosperity which had marked his first.[1] His friend, James Madison, succeeded him. George Clinton, who had been elected to succeed Aaron Burr, was reëlected Vice President.

Madison's Administration, 1809–1817[2]

326. War with Great Britain. Previous to 1812 British captains had carried off thousands of American seamen, and

[1] Jefferson died on July 4, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. John Adams passed away on the same day. His last words were, "Jefferson still lives," but Jefferson, at this hour, lay dead in his chamber at Monticello. At Monticello he had spent the last years of his life, deeply interested in everything that would advance the general welfare of his countrymen. He still continued, by his vast correspondence, to have much influence in the guidance of public affairs. It was during this period that he founded the University of Virginia, one of the noblest monuments of his career.

[2] James Madison, who was born in Virginia in 1751, and died in 1836, passed nearly the whole of his life, after reaching manhood, in public office. His public service began one year after his graduation from Princeton College; and from that time he grew rapidly in popular esteem. He was elected a member of Congress, and was the leader of his party in that body until he withdrew. So conspicuous was his influence in bringing about the call for the General Convention of 1787, that he has been justly spoken of as the "Father of the Constitution." His Resolutions of 1798–1799 in the Virginia legislature, and the Report with which he followed them up, are among the most memorable contributions ever made to the constitutional history of the United States. Under Jefferson, he filled the post of Secretary of State. With a memory of singular tenacity; a mind clear, strong, and logical; a disposition serene and cheerful; manners, simple and courteous, — all supported by the highest integrity and the greatest store of learning, — it is not strange that Madison should have had, as was said, a whole nation for his friends and admirers.

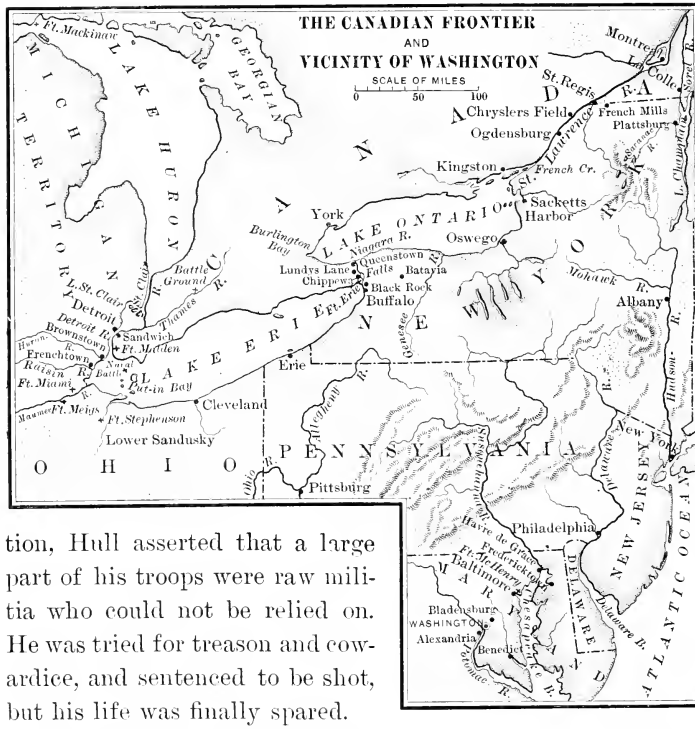
so far had the practice gone, that British men-of-war were stationed outside the harbors in the United States to overhaul American merchantmen and compel the surrender of all persons in the crews who were of British birth. The spirit of the Americans became thoroughly aroused,[1] and in 1812 war was declared with Great Britain. It had really begun on May 16, 1811, when the British ship, the *Little Belt*, about twilight, fired upon the American frigate, the *President*, off the coast of Virginia. The latter was in search of the *Guerrière*, which had, only a short time before, impressed an American sailor. The *President* returned the fire, and the *Little Belt* was compelled to lower her flag.

James Madison

327. Military Operations, 1812. *Surrender of Hull.* It was planned that three American armies should invade Canada and gradually approach each other until they should unite in sight of the fortifications of Montreal, — one to march from New England; another, from western New York; and the third, from Michigan. General Hull, in command of the last, advanced into Canada, with a view of capturing the British camp at Fort Malden, but confronted by the enemy, retreated to Detroit. Crossing the river below that post, the British were about to make an assault on the fortifications,

[1] Madison from the beginning favored the policy of peaceful conciliation, and pledged himself to recommend war only when the course of events had made that step inevitable. One wing of the Republican party, led by young Clay and Calhoun, — names destined to much distinction, — strongly opposed this pacific policy. Another wing, which favored peace, was led by the brilliant but eccentric John Randolph of Roanoke. Randolph, who boasted of his Indian descent, was very tall and thin, with cadaverous face and burning eyes. He was as quick as lightning in retort, with a wit that cut like a rapier and epithets that stuck like a bur.

when a white flag was raised (August 16). Hull, on being exchanged, sought to justify the surrender on the ground that the British commander had sent him word that he would be unable, in the event of an attack, to restrain his Indian allies from murdering the women and children in the fort. In addi-

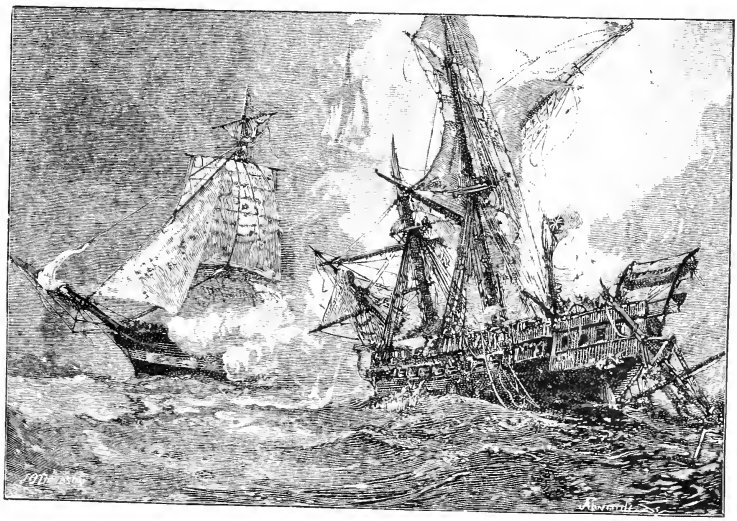


tion, Hull asserted that a large part of his troops were raw militia who could not be relied on. He was tried for treason and cowardice, and sentenced to be shot, but his life was finally spared.

328. *Attack on Queenstown.* In October, 1812, a detachment of the army under General Van Rensselaer (rĕn'se ler), which was to march from western New York to Montreal, crossed over the Niagara River, and captured the fort at Queenstown. The soldiers remaining on the American side declined to join their comrades on the Canadian side, on the

ground that they had been called out to defend the border, and not to invade the enemy's country. A large body of British troops and Indian warriors was now approaching; and on its arrival a battle took place, in which the small American force was completely defeated. Dearborn, who was to lead the expedition from New England against Montreal, stopped at the Canadian line. Thus ended ingloriously on land the first year of the war with Great Britain.

329. Naval Operations, 1812. *American Victories.* The operations by sea greatly increased the reputation of the



Constitution and Guerrière

American navy. In the interval between August and January the British sloops and men-of-war, the *Guerrière* (gâr ryâr'), the *Java*, the *Alert*, the *Frolic*, and the *Macedonian*, were forced to surrender to American captains. These victories raised very much the confidence of the American people. They were, perhaps, mainly due to the superiority of the American

gunnery. The American officers who won especial distinction were Captains Hull[1] and Bainbridge in the *Constitution,* Captain Porter in the *Essex,* and Captain Decatur in the *United States.*

330. *American Privateers.* It is estimated that during the first seven months of the war American privateers captured five hundred British merchantmen and three thousand prisoners. They scoured the ocean in small fleets, but, even when alone, never hesitated to attack British vessels, sometimes even when of greater size. The *Chasseur* (shah sẽr′), commanded by Captain Boyle, overhauled many British ships, most of which were either equal, or superior, to her in dimensions and number of guns. Sweeping the English Channel of merchantmen, Captain Boyle issued, in a spirit of humorous bravado, a proclamation declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade.

331. Military Operations, 1813. *General William Henry Harrison* had succeeded General Hull in command of the Western army. He had won great distinction by his victory over the Indians, November 7, 1811, at Tippecanoe Creek, a tributary of the Wabash, where he had been attacked at night by the Prophet, the brother of Tecumseh, who was now fighting on the side of the British. Harrison determined to drive the British from Detroit. At Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, his advance guard, under General Winchester, was compelled to surrender (January 22).[2] Harrison fell back to Fort Meigs

[1] Captain Hull was a nephew of General Hull, who surrendered Detroit. It was he who captured the *Guerrière.*

[2] The greater number of the wounded Americans who surrendered at Frenchtown were butchered by the Indians as soon as Proctor returned to Malden. Proctor, perhaps designedly, left the prisoners unprotected; and as a bounty was offered by the inhuman British for every American scalp brought in, the Indians were not slow to take advantage of the opportunity to secure so large a number. "Remember the Raisin" became the battle cry of the American soldiers in the West.

(mĕgz), on the Maumee. Here the British, under Colonel Proctor, made two assaults, but were repulsed. Proctor was also forced to retire from before Fort Stephenson (August 2), by the extraordinary skill and bravery with which it was

Battle of Tippecanoe

defended by Captain Croghan, an officer only twenty years of age, in command of one hundred and sixty men, and having one cannon.

332. *Battle of the Thames.* Proctor retired to Fort Malden, in Canada. Harrison, having transported his troops across Lake Erie by means of the American fleet operating in those waters, followed close behind the retreating British general, and, coming up with him, on October 5, at the Thames River, defeated him so overwhelmingly that few of the enemy escaped death or capture. Among those killed was the famous Indian chief, Tecumseh. This victory restored to the Americans the control of the Northwest.

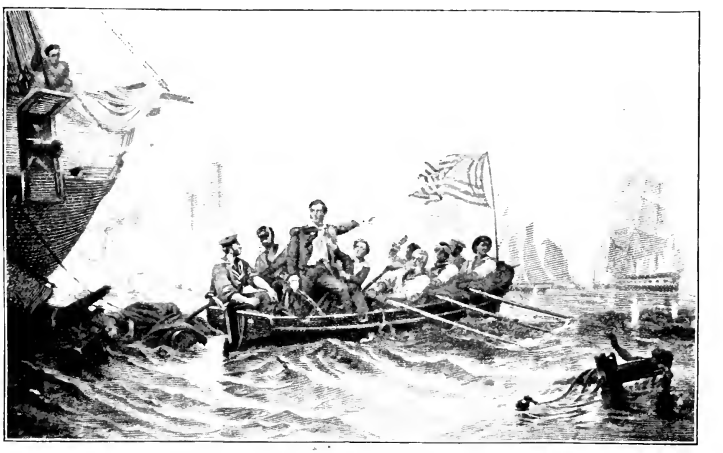
333. *Toronto and Chryslers Field.* In April the Army of the Center, which had taken position on the Niagara River,

under the command of General Dearborn, succeeded in capturing York, now Toronto, and destroying the supplies stored there, but soon withdrew across the lake. In the assault on York, in the course of this expedition, General Pike, a young and brilliant American officer, was mortally wounded in the moment of victory by the blowing up of the magazine. An attack by the British on Sacketts Harbor was bravely repulsed. General Wilkinson superseded Dearborn, and in October set out with his army for Montreal, but receiving a check at Chryslers Field, November 11, retreated to his starting point. The frontier of the United States along the Niagara River was now abandoned to the ravages of the British.

334. Naval Operations, 1813–1815. *Varying Fortunes.* In the course of 1813–1815 fortune was, on the whole, favorable to the Americans by sea. Among the British ships captured, after fierce battles, were the *Peacock*, the *Boxer*, the *Epervier*, the *Reindeer*, and the *Avon*. In June, 1813, Captain Lawrence, in the *Chesapeake*, was forced to strike his colors to the British frigate *Shannon*, but only after every officer on board of his vessel had either perished or been severely wounded. Mortally wounded himself, Lawrence, as he was borne below, exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship." Captain Porter, cruising in the *Essex* in the Pacific, destroyed the British whaling interests in those waters. His prizes were so numerous that he was soon able to form a small fleet. It was not until she was disabled by an accident that the *Essex* was captured by two British ships sent in pursuit of her.

335. *Battles of Lakes Erie and Champlain.* On September 10, 1813, Captain Oliver H. Perry, who had built, in part out of green forest trees, nine vessels on Lake Erie, attacked the seasoned British fleet, under Commodore Barclay, at a point near Put-in Bay. Perry had never before been present at a naval battle; Barclay had seen long service under Nelson.

The American flagship was the *Lawrence*. So fiercely did the battle rage about it that it was soon in a crippled condition. Perry, bearing the colors in one hand, leaped into a boat and was rowed to the *Niagara*. Renewing the contest, he soon broke the British line, and compelled the fleet to surrender. "We have met the enemy, and they are ours," so ran his dispatch to the government. Twelve months later (September 11, 1814), Commodore McDonough won a victory, on Lake Cham-



Perry's Victory on Lake Erie

plain, over a British fleet which had been sent forward to clear the way for the invasion of northern New York by an expedition under General Prevost (pre vō'). The British land force, which had also been repulsed at Plattsburg, retreated to Montreal.

336. Operations in the North, 1814. *Army Reorganized.* The whole of the winter of 1813–1814 was given up to reorganizing the American troops. The system of drill in use in France, then the first military nation in the world, was intro-

duced. The progress of hostilities had brought out the capacity of the men fitted for command, and these were now rapidly promoted. General Jacob Brown, an officer of great ability, was put at the head of the American armies. One of his lieutenants was Winfield Scott, a young officer from Virginia, who was destined to rise to the highest distinction.

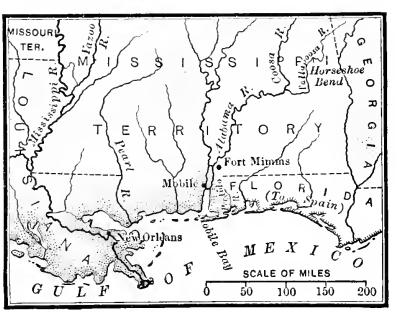
337. *Chippewa and Lundys Lane.* On July 3, the American army crossed the Niagara River and captured Fort Erie. A few days later (July 5) the advance guard, under Scott, drove the British from their strong intrenchments on the Chip'pewa, and compelled them to retreat to the north shore of Lake Ontario. Reënforcements coming to their assistance, they wheeled about, and, at Lundys Lane, July 25, not far from Niagara Falls, gave the Americans battle. It was soon sunset, but the combat went on as fiercely as ever until midnight. Both Brown and Scott were wounded in the fight. General Ripley succeeded to the command, and although the enemy had withdrawn from the field, he retreated to Fort Erie, where he was besieged by the British, until Brown, having recovered from his wound, drove them back to their intrenchments on the Chippewa. Brown then took position on the American side of the Niagara River. Before hostilities could begin again, peace was declared.

338. Operations in the East, 1813–1814. *Attack on Washington.* In the course of 1813 and 1814 the British were busy ravaging the smaller towns on the Atlantic coast, from Connecticut to Virginia. In August, 1814, they determined to attack several of the larger cities. Five thousand men under General Ross were transported up the Chesapeake and landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent River, in Maryland. Marching toward Washington, Ross succeeded, in spite of the hot fire from the batteries of Captain Barney, in brushing aside a body of militia, under General Winder, that tried to obstruct the

road at Bladensburg. The President and Cabinet had left the city. Setting fire to the Capitol, the White House, and other public buildings (August 24), Ross retreated hastily to the British shipping in the Patuxent.

339. *Fort McHenry Bombarded.* The fleet then sailed toward Baltimore. Disembarking his troops fourteen miles below the city, Ross attacked a large body of raw militia that blocked his way and was killed in the fight. On the same day (September 13) the British ships began a terrific bombardment of Fort McHenry, which defended the approaches to the harbor, and kept it up until one o'clock next morning.[1] So determined was the defense by Colonel Armistead that the enemy were forced to draw off and return to the mouth of the Chesapeake. From there they finally retired to the coast of Georgia, where they accumulated every sort of booty.

340. Operations in the South, 1813–1815. *The Creeks.* When the war began, the Indian tribes in the Southwest had been inclined to take sides against the Americans. The Creeks, the most



Creek War

[1] Francis Scott Key, a citizen of Maryland, was at this time detained on board of one of the British ships. As long as he saw the bombs rising and falling in their course, he knew that the garrison of the fort still held out, and that the flag of his country was still waving from its ramparts. When the roar of the cannon ceased at one o'clock and the darkness remained unilluminated by a single exploding shell, his heart sank within him; he was fearful lest the flag should be no longer on the fort. But as the first beam of light stole across the heavens, he saw it still proudly streaming to the wind on its accustomed staff. Inspired by the patriotic emotions called up by that glorious sight, he composed the memorable song, the *Star-spangled Banner*, which has become the national hymn of the American people.

powerful of these tribes, had shown a hostile spirit at once, and, on August 30, 1813, had ruthlessly massacred five hundred men, women, and children in Fort Mimms, near Mobile. Rushing to arms on receiving news of this terrible event, the Tennessee troops, under General Andrew Jackson, succeeded in cooping the Indians up in the narrow bounds of Horseshoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa River. In the fight that followed (March 27, 1814), eight hundred savages were left dead on the field, and the power of the Creeks was completely broken.

341. *Jackson's Victory at New Orleans.* The first abdication of Napoleon left Great Britain at liberty to direct against the United States the whole force which had been engaged in the war with the French. Fifty of her best ships carrying 20,000 veteran soldiers and sailors were sent out in an expedition against New Orleans. Hearing of this intended invasion, General Jackson called together a large body of volunteers from Tennessee and Kentucky, and hurried to the neighborhood of that city. Throwing up a breastwork, first of cotton bales, but afterwards of earth, with his 6000 hardy backwoodsmen, who were unerring riflemen, he calmly awaited the attack of the British (January 8, 1815). Twice the enemy bravely came on over the open plain, with bands playing lively airs and flags streaming overhead, and twice recoiled before the

Battle of New Orleans

storm of shot and shell. Soon after the battle began, the British withdrew, in great disorder, from the field, after the loss of 2100 men. General Pakenham, who was in command, was killed. Jackson's total loss was about seventy men.

342. Treaty of Peace. Fifteen days before the battle of New Orleans was fought, a treaty, insuring peace, had been signed at Ghent, in Europe (December 24, 1814). Information that such a treaty had been made, and that a victory had been won in Louisiana, came nearly together, and caused universal joy. Nor was this lessened when it was found that the treaty made no provision to stop the impressment of American sailors, or to put an end to the supposed right of search. The second war of Independence had ended; the power of the United States was now, for the first time, clearly recognized abroad, and frankly admitted. There would be no further occurrence of the causes of complaint which had brought on the war.

343. Some Effects of the War. *Hartford Convention.* The war bore upon the interests of the New England States so seriously, by damaging their commerce and shipping, that a strong feeling of disaffection sprang up in that quarter. On December 15th, 1814, there assembled at Hartford a convention with delegates in attendance from them all. Its sessions were held with closed doors, but in the public address which was issued the intention seemed to be expressed that, unless the general government changed the manner of carrying on the war, the States of New England would withdraw from the Union. A second body, which was to take decisive action, was only prevented from assembling by the reception of the news that a victory had been won at New Orleans, and peace declared.

344. *Growth of Manufactures.* The war proved in the end to be of great advantage to the New England and other

Northern States by turning their attention more than ever to manufactures. In this line, heavy investments of capital were now made, instead of in seagoing vessels as formerly. When peace was declared, English merchandise poured into the United States. But it was too late for American manufacturers to turn to shipping, because the nations of Europe, being all at peace, were now ready to compete with them. Should the new cotton spindles stop and the new factories shut their doors? The Tariff Act of 1816 was passed, and a duty of not less than six and a half cents a yard placed on all cotton and woolen goods brought into the United States. This duty added to the foreign price of imported goods made it easy for domestic goods to compete with them.

345. The Barbary Powers had renewed their attacks upon American merchantmen in the Mediterranean. In May, 1815, Decatur was sent with a fleet to humble the dey of Algiers. After overhauling several frigates and taking a large number of prisoners, he dropped anchor off the city of Algiers and threatened that unless the American captives were set free, an indemnity paid, and all claim to a tribute renounced, he would destroy the town. His terms were accepted.

346. Election of Monroe. Madison, who had filled two terms of office, declined to be elected again, and was succeeded by James Monroe, of Virginia, at that time the Secretary of State. Governor Tompkins, of New York, was elected Vice President.

Monroe's Administration, 1817–1825[1]

347. Acquisition of Florida. Florida, at this time still a Spanish possession, was a refuge for fugitives of all colors,

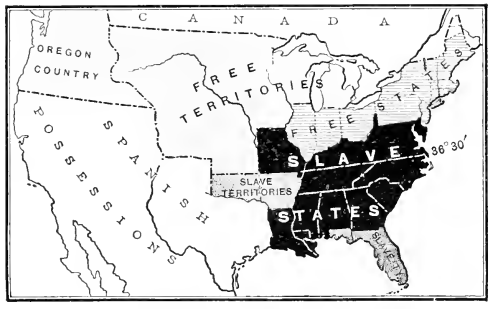
[1] James Monroe was born in Virginia in 1758, and died in 1831. So ardent was his patriotic spirit that, while still a mere youth, he abandoned his studies at William and Mary College to take part, as a private soldier, in the Revolutionary war. He won distinction in a number of battles. Governor of

whether white men, Indians, or negroes. From the safe hiding places of its everglades and swamps many smuggling expeditions stole out to carry goods over into Georgia and Alabama. So intolerable became the murders and depredations of the Creeks and Seminole tribes residing near the border, that General Andrew Jackson was, in 1818, sent by the general government with a large body of troops to put them down. They sought refuge in the Spanish forts, but in vain. The Spaniards were treated as enemies; two English traders were hung as spies; and the Indians were conquered. In the following year Spain ceded the whole of Florida to the United States in return for $5,000,000. By the same treaty, also, the dispute with Spain over the boundary in the Southwest and West was settled by the adoption of a zigzag line drawn from a point on the Sabine River to the source of the Arkansas; thence north to 42°, and along that parallel to the Pacific Ocean (map, p. 214).

James Monroe

Virginia, member of both houses of Congress, Minister in turn to France, Spain, and England, Secretary of State, Secretary of War,—in all these high offices he showed such integrity and disinterestedness as to deserve the encomium of Jefferson: "If the soul of Monroe were turned inside out, not a spot would be found on it." A man of solid rather than brilliant attainments, plain in his tastes, unpretending in his manners, he won at an early period in his career the confidence and respect of the people, and retained both to his last hour. In a tour of the Northeastern States at the beginning of his administration, he appeared everywhere in the undress uniform of a Revolutionary officer,—the military coat of homespun, the light-colored breeches, cocked hat. The memories of a common glory, which were by these means so vividly called up, won for him at every stage of his journey a most enthusiastic ovation.

348. The Missouri Compromise. Missouri Territory, part of the Louisiana purchase, sought, in 1818, admission as a State. The question arose: Should it be allowed to come in only on condition that, after a certain date, slavery should be abolished in its borders? The Southern members of Congress maintained that as Louisiana had been allowed to come in as a slave State, Missouri should also. The Northern members not only protested against the further extension of slavery, as an economic blight, but also objected that, if all the States to be carved out of the Louisiana purchase were to be admitted to the Union as slave States, the slave States would have a great superiority in numbers over the free States in Congress. The Ohio River was considered to be the line between the free and slave States. If this line were continued directly westward from the Mississippi River, it would consign the greater part of Missouri to the region belonging to the free States of the Northwest.[1] The controversy was settled by admitting Missouri as a slave State, but laying down the rule that, in the remainder of the Louisiana purchase lying north of 36° 30′ north latitude, which was the boundary line between



Missouri Compromise

[1] By this time Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had been admitted as free States, under the terms of the ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory. These new States extended to the Mississippi River. Why, asked the North, should free institutions stop at that stream? Why should they not be introduced into the country on the opposite side, a mere prolongation of the Northwest Territory, though not by name included in it?

Missouri and the Territory of Arkansas, the institution of slavery was to be forever prohibited. This was known as the Missouri Compromise of 1820.

349. Antagonism of Sectional Interests. *American System.* In the session of Congress, in 1822, there was noticed among the members of the Republican party a great difference of opinion as to the right interpretation of the powers and limitations of the Constitution. One wing, composed chiefly of Western, Northern, and Eastern members, favored what was termed the "American System"; that is to say, the encouragement of the manufactures of the United States by a heavy tax on all the goods brought into the country, and the carrying out of internal improvements at the expense of the general government. The other wing, composed for the most part of Southern members, disapproved of a high tariff, and also of all plans for internal improvements, unless made at the expense of the States. The latter wing was soon known as the Democratic party, the former as the National Republican.[1]

350. *The South and the Tariff.* As the area of cotton culture in the South widened, the interests of the Southern people grew more and more purely agricultural. A tariff brought to them few advantages beyond a demand for their great staple in New England, which was of less relative value now that the demand for it was steadily increasing in Europe. They were anxious to buy what merchandise they needed in the cheapest markets, and as these were foreign, in many cases, tariff rates had the effect of raising the prices of the goods they had to purchase.

[1] After 1816 the Federalist party, as a political organization, practically ceased to exist. This was because the war with England had settled the questions of foreign policy, which were the main causes of difference between the Federalists and Republicans. During twelve years the Republican party was the only great party, and then, as stated in the text, it began to divide as new issues arose.

351. *The West and the Tariff.* The western States, also, were chiefly engaged in agriculture, but their products, unlike cotton and rice, were not as yet in great demand abroad. It was very much to the interest of these States that markets should be created for their products in the eastern States. A tariff would not only, by making the eastern States wealthier, increase their ability to buy the western crops, but it would also put it in the power of the general government to accumulate a large fund for building roads and digging canals, that would render it easy for the western States to transport their products to the eastern. In consequence of northern and western influence in Congress, the tariff was raised on iron, hemp, wool, woolen and cotton goods.

352. Monroe Doctrine. Several of the Spanish dependencies in South America had risen up against the mother country, and the United States had recognized them as independent powers. Hearing that France intended to call together a conference of nations to adopt measures for helping Spain to regain these colonies, the American people leaped to the conclusion that the European governments really designed to take possession of the countries in revolt. Monroe sent a message to Congress (1823), in which he declared that the United States would consider any attempt on the part of the European powers to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to the peace and safety of the republic. This has always been interpreted as meaning that this country would resent such extension by force of arms. There was, after this, no further suggestion of interference, and all the Spanish colonies except Cuba and Porto Rico remained independent republics.

353. Election of Monroe and John Quincy Adams. *Era of Good Feeling.* Monroe was elected for a second term. This was the "era of good feeling," — the era when there was but

one great party, — and he received all the electoral votes except one, which was cast for another candidate, by an elector from New Hampshire, who desired that Washington alone should have the distinction in history of receiving all the votes in the electoral colleges. At the end of Monroe's second term, no one candidate having obtained the votes of a majority of the electors, the election was thrown into the House of Representatives. The choice of the States fell on John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, a son of John Adams, although in the electoral colleges he had received fewer votes than General Andrew Jackson. This result was due to the influence of Henry Clay, another candidate, who preferred Adams to Jackson. When Adams became President, he appointed Clay Secretary of State. The followers of Jackson at once raised the cry of "Bargain and Sale," but Clay fully vindicated himself from the charge. John C. Calhoun was elected Vice President.

John Quincy Adams's Administration, 1825–1829[1]

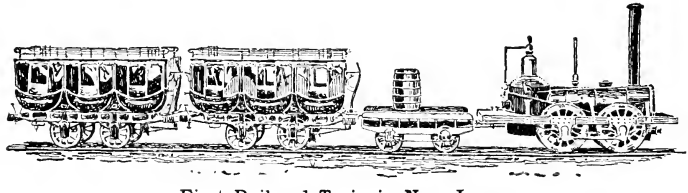
354. Erie Canal. The administration of Adams was chiefly remarkable for the number of internal improvements that were taken up and carried on by public and private enterprise. Every venture of that kind in which there was a prospect of gain had the liberal support of private purse and public treasury. The Cumberland Road, starting in Maryland, was extended to

[1] John Quincy Adams, the son of John Adams the second President, was born in Massachusetts in 1767 and died in 1848. His great natural ability had been improved by general culture and the discipline of varied experience. His long and distinguished life was for the most part occupied with the duties of public office — he was in turn Minister to Netherlands, Portugal, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain ; and was one of the envoys who negotiated the treaty of Ghent. He was at the time a member of the Senate and Secretary of State, and after retiring from the presidency was for many years a member of the House of Representatives. In character he was narrow, acrimonious, indefatigable, learned, upright, and patriotic.

Wheeling, and later on to Indiana. In 1825 the Erie Canal, built by the State of New York, from Hudson River to Lake Erie (map, p. 215), was thrown open to traffic, thus cutting down the cost of transporting a ton of merchandise from Buffalo to Albany from $120 to $14. The effect of this was enormous. The canal at once became the great highway between the west and east. It encouraged a steady outpouring of people from New England, and by diverting the bulk of the western trade from the Mississippi River and New Orleans, made New York City the great commercial depot and financial center of North America. The success of the Erie Canal greatly stimulated canal building, and by the close of Adams's administration there were over 1300 miles of canal dug.

John Quincy Adams

355. Steam Transportation. In 1819, the *Savannah* crossed the ocean, the first steamship to make the voyage. Small steamboats were, at the beginning of this administration, plying on all the principal rivers in the settled parts of the west,



First Railroad Train in New Jersey

and by furnishing easy transportation to immigrants were rapidly extending the line of the frontiers. As early as 1827 there were horse railways in Massachusetts and New York, and in this year a charter was obtained to build a steam railway in

South Carolina. George Stephenson, in England, had, by this time, given an enormous impulse to the use of steam by his success in driving, by that means, the *Rocket* at the rate of thirty miles an hour. By 1831 several steam railways were in operation in the United States.

356. Doctrine of Nullification. Higher import duties were, in 1828, placed on manufactured goods, and also on such raw materials as wool and hemp. The interests of the Southern States, which were confined to the production for export of such staples as tobacco, rice, and cotton, were so damaged by this bill, in consequence of the high prices of manufactured articles which it caused, that a large number of their legislatures protested against it. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, drew up a paper as the expression of that State's opposition to the new duties, in which it was maintained that every State had a right under the Constitution to determine whether an act of Congress were constitutional, and to declare it null and void and resist its enforcement if judged to be unconstitutional. This was known as the doctrine of nullification (§ 313).

357. Election of Jackson. Adams was a candidate for reëlection in 1828, but Andrew Jackson, the Democratic candidate, was elected, by a large majority, because he was "a man of the people."

Admission of New States, 1789–1829

358. Eleven new States were admitted to the Union in the interval between the adoption of the Constitution and the end of J. Q. Adams's administration. This swelled the total number of States to twenty-four. As the region best fitted for settlement lay toward the west and southwest, it followed that the great majority of new States were situated in those quarters; Vermont and Maine, indeed, were the only new States situated in the east. With the exception of Louisiana

and Missouri, which were carved out of the region purchased from France, each one of the new States had, at one time, formed a part of one of the original thirteen. Vermont, though claimed by New York as belonging to the Duke of York's grant (§ 139), was, in the beginning, a part of New Hampshire, and long known as the "New Hampshire Grants." Maine had been a part of Massachusetts. At one time Kentucky was a county of Virginia. Tennessee, the State immediately south of it, had been a possession of North Carolina. In 1784 it had gone so far as to set up an independent government known as the "State of Franklin," in honor of Benjamin Franklin, but was compelled to return to its allegiance to North Carolina. Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had, after Clark's conquest of the Northwest, been included in Illinois County, which, like Kentucky County, was a part of Virginia, though other States claimed a share in that country. The greater part of Mississippi and Alabama once belonged to Georgia.

359. First Settlers of the New States. Vermont and Maine had been gradually settled like the older States to which they originally belonged. But with the exception of Louisiana, a French and Spanish colony, this was not the case with the other new States. Those States had been settled by great streams of emigrants from the east. The first great stream poured from Pennsylvania and eastern Virginia into western Virginia and Kentucky. The second stream, composed of Virginians and Carolinians, poured down the valley of the Tennessee. The third, greater in volume than either of the other two, and largely drawn from New England, spread over the Northwest Territory. It was not until the production of cotton became profitable and the power of the Indian tribes was broken that the country lying in the boundaries of the present States of Alabama and Mississippi began to fill up rapidly with popu-

lation. As cotton, like tobacco, could be cultivated to advantage with slave labor, settlers who brought their slaves with them were attracted to this region from all the Southern States.

360. The Northwest Territory, unlike Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama, was cultivated by free labor from the beginning, in consequence of the provision against slavery inserted in the ordinance for the government of that region. There was no inducement for slaveholders to settle there. Perhaps the largest proportion of the persons from slave States who came into the country afterwards known as Ohio, were the holders of land warrants granted by Virginia for services in the Revolution. That State, in ceding the Northwest to the national government, reserved certain lands for this purpose. The overwhelming mass of the people who entered Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, the three States of the Northwest admitted to the Union previous to the election of Jackson, had always been accustomed to free labor. It is estimated that, during the first two years after the adoption of the ordinance for the Northwest Territory, not less than 20,000 settlers passed down the Ohio River in search of new homes. They had come over the mountains on foot, on pack horses, or in wagons. The Indian uprisings for a time checked the influx of settlers, but as soon as peace was restored the rush began again.

361. The liberal policy which the government finally adopted in selling the public lands of the Northwest greatly increased the number of people coming in. At first they had to pay cash. After 1800 the new settler could pay for his farm in four annual installments, which gave him time to meet his debt to the government by the sale of his products. As early as 1800 the population had grown so large that Indiana Territory was set apart from the Northwest Territory. Three years

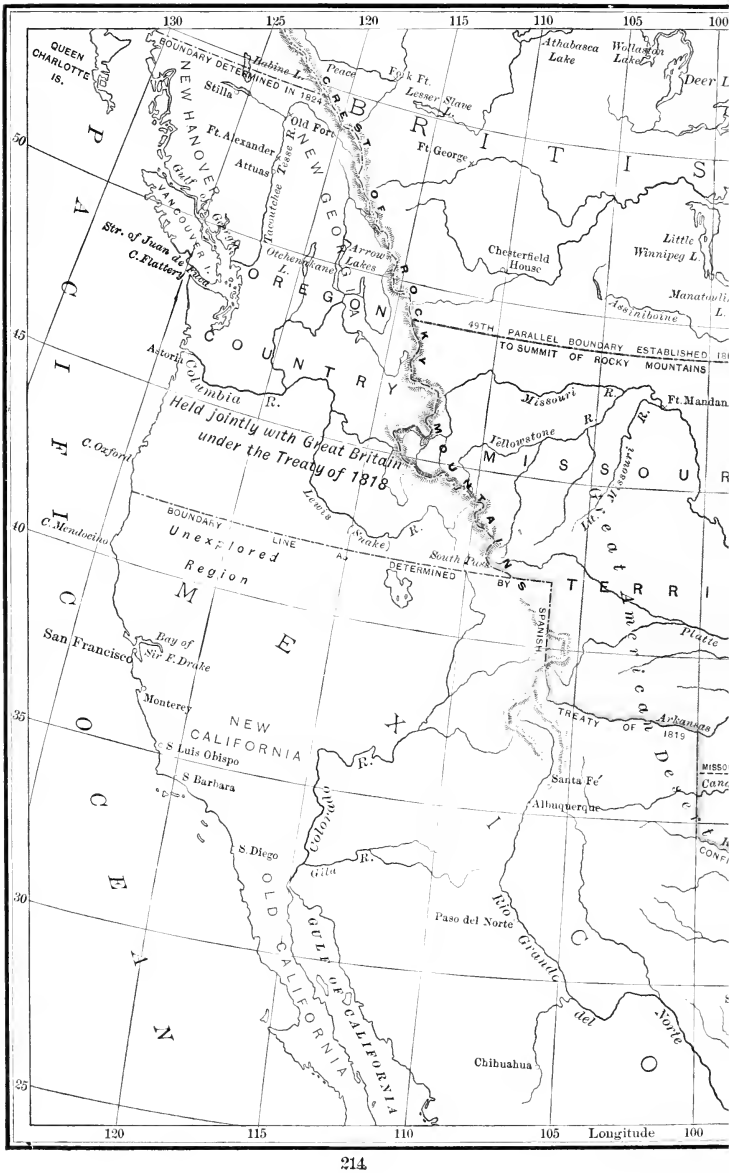
later the State of Ohio (1803) was organized, only fifteen years after the first settlement had been made at Marietta. In 1800 almost the only people in Indiana were a few French traders and the scattered tribes of Indians. Sixteen years later so many settlers had poured in that it was sufficiently populous to be admitted as a State. In 1809 part of the remainder of the original Territory of Indiana (Illinois and Wisconsin) was set apart as the Territory of Illinois. In 1818 a portion of this territory was organized as the State of Illinois.

362. The Political Balance. Previous to the election of Andrew Jackson the new country east of the Mississippi River, from its source to its mouth, had, with the exception of the present States of Florida, Wisconsin, and Michigan, and part of Minnesota been divided into great States. Two States, Louisiana and Missouri, had also been organized west of that stream. As the case then stood the free States and the slave States were fairly well balanced in political power, and this had been brought about by the alternate admission of a slave State and a free State. The admission of Kentucky as a slave State was approved in 1791, but before she could adopt a constitution and come in (1792), Vermont, a free State, had been admitted (1791). Tennessee, a slave State, followed in 1796, and Ohio, a free State, in 1803. Louisiana, a slave State, was admitted in 1812, and Indiana, a free State, in 1816; Mississippi, a slave State, was admitted in 1817, and Illinois, a free State, in 1818; Alabama, a slave State, was admitted in 1819, and Maine, a free State, in 1820. Maine was really admitted as a counterbalance to Missouri, which came in as a slave State in 1821. The geographical line between the free and slave States was now clearly drawn. Whatever antagonism existed between the political interests of the two was supposed to have been forever settled by the Missouri Compromise.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD V

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—UNION.

- **I. Washington's Administration, 1789-1797.**
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Funding the National Debt.
    2. Assumption of State Debts.
    3. Estab. of National Bank.
    4. Protective Import Duties.
    5. Federalists and Republicans.
    6. Washington City founded.
    7. Cotton Gin invented.
    8. Indian Wars.
    9. Farewell Address.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Difficulties with Genet.
    2. Proclamation of Neutrality.
    3. Treaty with Great Britain.
- **II. John Adams's Administration, 1797-1801.**
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Alien and Sedition Acts.
    2. Va. and Ky. Resolutions.
    3. President elected by House of Representatives.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Mission to France.
    2. Envoy's Insolent Treatment.
    3. Naval Battles with French.
    4. Treaty of Peace.
- **III. Jefferson's Administration, 1801-1809.**
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Growth in National Prosperity.
    2. Fulton's Experiment.
    3. Expedition of Lewis and Clark.
    4. Burr's Conspiracy.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Purchase of Louisiana.
    2. War with Tripoli.
    3. British Impress. Am. Seamen.
    4. Capture of *Chesapeake*.
    5. Embargo Act.
    6. Non-intercourse Act.
- **IV. Madison's Administration, 1809-1817.**
  - 1. Military Events.
    1. Battle of Tippecanoe.
    2. Surrender of Detroit.
    3. Battle of Queenstown.
    4. Battle of Frenchtown.
    5. Battle of the Thames.
    6. Battle of Chryslers Field.
    7. Battle of Chippewa.
    8. Battle of Lundys Lane.
    9. Battle of Horseshoe Bend.
    10. Fall of Washington.
    11. Attack on Baltimore.
    12. Battle of New Orleans.
    13. War with Barbary Powers.
  - 2. Naval Events.
    1. *Esser* and *Constitution*.
    2. Damage by the *Chasseur*.
    3. Capture of *Chesapeake*.
    4. Battle on Lake Erie.
    5. Battle on Lake Champlain.
  - 3. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Hartford Convention.
    2. Manufactures and Tariff.
- **V. Monroe's Administration, 1817-1825.**
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Missouri Compromise.
    2. Diversity of Interests.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. The Monroe Doctrine.
    2. Purchase of Florida.
- **VI. J. Q. Adams's Admin., 1825-1829.**
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Internal Improvement.
    2. Increase on Import Duties.
- **VII. New States Admitted, 1789-1829.**
  - 1. Free.
    1. Vermont.
    2. Ohio.
    3. Indiana.
    4. Illinois.
    5. Maine.
  - 2. Slave.
    1. Kentucky.
    2. Tennessee.
    3. Louisiana.
    4. Mississippi.
    5. Alabama.
    6. Missouri.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125
120
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QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
BOUNDARY DETERMINED IN 1824
Stikine
Peace R.
Fork Ft. Lesser Slave
Athabasca Lake
Wollaston Lake
Deer L
NEW HANOVER
Ft. Alexander
Attuas
Old Fort
Ft George
BRITISH
Gulf of Georgia
Vancouver I.
Str. of Juan de Fuca
C. Flattery
Chesterfield House
Little Winnipeg L.
Manatowli L.
Assiniboine
49TH PARALLEL BOUNDARY ESTABLISHED TO SUMMIT OF ROCKY MOUNTAINS
Astoria
Columbia R.
Missouri R.
Ft. Mandan
Held Jointly with Great Britain under the Treaty of 1818
C. Oxford
Yellowstone R.
C. Mendocino
BOUNDARY LINE Unexplored Region AS DETERMINED BY
Snake R.
South Pass
TERRI
Platte R.
Bay of San F. Drake
San Francisco
Monterey
NEW CALIFORNIA
S. Luis Obispo
S. Barbara
Arkansas R.
TREATY OF 1819
Santa Fé
Albuquerque
Colorado R.
S. Diego
Gila R.
OLD CALIFORNIA
Paso del Norte
Rio Grande del Norte
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
Chihuahua
50
45
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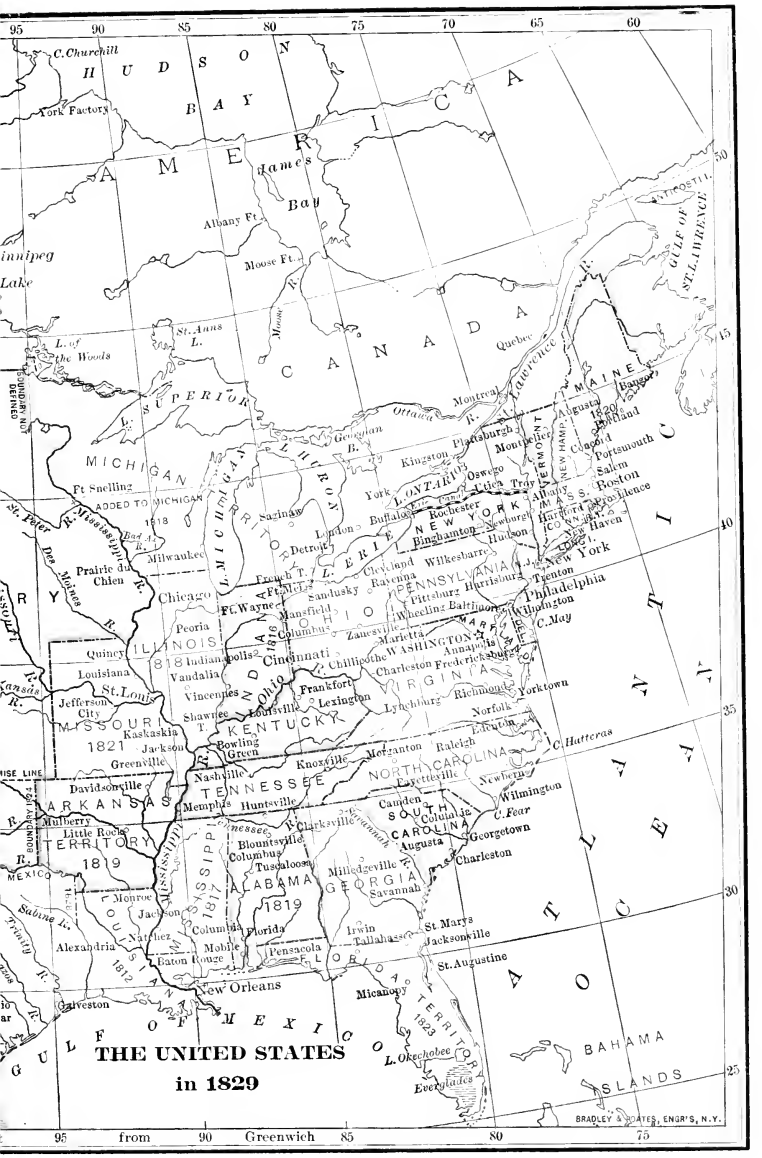

THE UNITED STATES
in 1829
BRADLEY & GATES, ENGR'S, N.Y.
95 from 90 Greenwich 85 80 75

PERIOD VI. UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—DIVISION

Jackson's Administration, 1829–1837[1]

363. Democratic Spirit. The political influence of the colonial age had now passed. The control had fallen into the hands of a generation brought up under republican institutions alone. The democratic spirit was abroad, and its energy, buoyancy, confidence, and even recklessness were already apparent, both in political and economic affairs. Thirty years

[1] Andrew Jackson was born in North Carolina in 1767, and died in Tennessee in 1845. He was sprung from the sturdy and upright Scotch-Irish stock which had settled the Waxhaw district in the former State. As a boy he took part in the relentless partisan warfare of Whig and Tory, which spread fire and death on all sides; was struck over the head with a sword and nearly killed, because he declined to clean the boots of a British officer; was thrown into a loathsome prison, and came out disfigured for life by smallpox. After several years, he studied law, and having been appointed public prosecutor, removed to the remote settlements on the Cumberland River, at a time when hardly a day passed that some pioneer was not cut off by the lurking Indians. With a high sense of public duty, and without any fear whatever, he carried terror into the hearts of all who broke the law. His determination to trample down all opposition, rightful or wrongful, involved him, as a private citizen, in many brawls and duels. Born a leader of men, his progress in official distinction, both civil and military, was very rapid. Elected in succession to the United States House of Representatives, to the Senate, to

Andrew Jackson

earlier, so ignorant and, from many points of view, so inexperienced a person as Jackson would not have been thought of for the presidency. Democracy was now to show for the first time in our history that a chief magistrate drawn from the people is often a more competent ruler than one who has enjoyed all the benefits of birth, education, wealth, and long experience in office.

364. Spoils System. There had gone abroad a notion that constant change in office was truly democratic, and that political warfare should be waged on the principle that "to the victor belong the spoils." There had, previous to Jackson's election, been comparatively few removals from office for political reasons. In 1829 alone Jackson caused the names of at least 700 persons to be stricken from the roll of public employment, with no better excuse than a desire to reward his own clamorous partisans. As the new appointees changed all their clerks, about 2000 changes were made in the civil service. The example thus set became, until recent years, the fixed policy of Jackson's successors.

365. Financial Conditions. *United States Bank.* Jackson was strongly opposed to the United States Bank. He declared that it was in league with his enemies, and that, having a pecuniary monopoly, it could build up or depress any part of the country it chose. After having vetoed a bill rechartering the Bank in 1832, he ordered his Secretary of the Treasury, Roger B. Taney, in 1833, to use the State banks as places of safe keeping for the government's funds. The public moneys

the Supreme Court of Tennessee, there was no position in the gift of the State he could not have won. We have already dwelt on his career in the Creek and Seminole wars and the war with Great Britain. Honest in every fiber, unconquerable and inflexible in will; a patriot, drawing his inspiration from the blood of the Revolution; a friend of the people because one of them by birth and association; narrow, prejudiced, passionate, and illiterate, he was withal one of the greatest of Americans, and not without merits as a ruler.

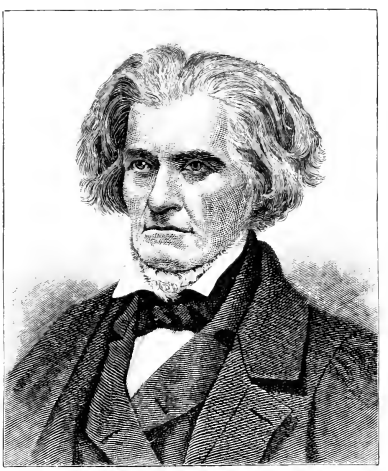
were drawn out of the United States Bank in payment of the expenses of national administration, and no public moneys were again put there.

366. *Wild Cat State Banks.* The chief opposition to the United States Bank had come from the Southern and Western States. In those parts of the country there were many State banks, and it was feared that, should the United States Bank establish many branches there, the business of the State banks would be curtailed, if not destroyed. As soon as it was known that the United States Bank would not be rechartered, there was a rush for charters for new State banks, because these banks were hereafter to be the places of deposit for the government's funds, and because they would also have the power to issue paper money. For both reasons they would be in a position to do a very profitable business. A spirit of speculation at once arose, and it rapidly grew more and more extravagant. Money was easily obtained, and everybody tried to make a fortune quickly.

367. *The speculative mania* took different forms. The profitableness of manufactures under the influence of the higher import duties, the erection of new lines of transportation, the rush of immigrants,— all tended to build up new centers of population. Everywhere in the newly settled parts of the United States villages were in an incredibly short time expanding into towns, and towns into cities. For instance, in 1833 Chicago was a small fort; in 1839 it had become a flourishing town. St. Louis and Cincinnati were now growing almost as rapidly. This growth of villages, towns, and cities made speculation in town lots one of the most popular forms of investment, in the hope of acquiring sudden riches by the increase in values. More popular yet was the speculation in railroad building. By this means a vast area of the public domain was brought in reach of early and convenient settle-

ment. One form of speculation was to buy the public lands at a small figure, and sell them high, often, indeed, for fabulous sums, as the sites of new towns. In the South and Southwest the speculation was directed to the purchase of slaves and lands suited for the cultivation of cotton. New Orleans rapidly increased in importance. As we shall see later on, this speculative fever ended in a great financial panic (§§ 379–380).

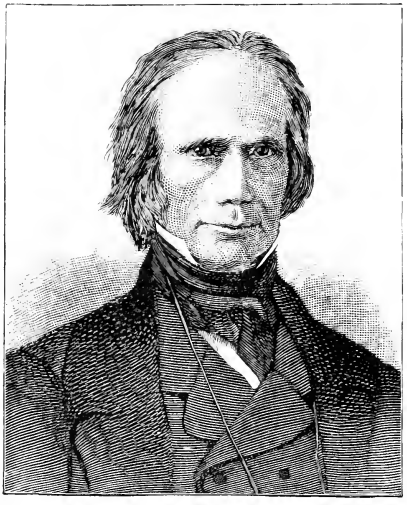
368. Nullification in South Carolina. *Tariff of 1832.* In 1832 a tariff act was passed which was more offensive to the South than even that of 1828 (§ 356), because it further increased the cost of the manufactured supplies it was forced to buy. A convention met in South Carolina, and, under the influence of Calhoun, adopted an ordinance of nullification, to take effect in February, 1833, unless the tariff act was, in the meanwhile, repealed by Congress. It was maintained that the object of this act was simply to give further protection to manufacturers, and not to raise the necessary revenue for the government; that it was, therefore, contrary to the Constitution. Any attempt of the general government to enforce it in South Carolina, the convention declared, would be regarded as justifying the withdrawal of the State from the Union.



John C. Calhoun

369. *Jackson Acts.* Jackson dispatched a sloop of war to

Charleston for the protection of the customs officers. He also concentrated troops in the forts around that city and along the borders of the State. Having issued an eloquent proclamation upholding the power of the national government, he sent a message to Congress recommending that the tariff act condemned by the South Carolina ordinance should be modified. A new act was passed by the influence of Clay, which would gradually reduce all duties year by year until only a tariff for the revenue needed by the government would remain.[1] The people of South Carolina, believing they had gained the end for which the Ordinance of Nullification was adopted, quietly met in convention again and repealed it.[2]



Henry Clay

[1] The principle of this act was opposed to the spirit of the "American System" (§ 349) which Clay had so earnestly advocated. When told that his connection with the new law would injure his chance of becoming President, he nobly replied, "I had rather be right than President."

[2] We have seen that, in the Kentucky Resolutions of 1798–1799 (§ 313), it was first distinctly asserted that nullification was the remedy in every case in which a State considered that an act of Congress impairing her interests, was in violation of the Constitution, and that she alone was to be the judge as to whether the act amounted to such violation or not. In 1830, in a debate of great learning and acuteness, Robert Y. Hayne and Daniel Webster, representing South Carolina and Massachusetts respectively, in the Senate, discussed in all their varied aspects the rights of the States, on the one side, the powers of the Federal government, on the other. Was the tariff act of 1828

370. Slavery Agitation. *Abolition Societies.* At this time, the great body of the people in the North looked upon slavery as an institution that was protected, where it existed already, from all interference on the part of Congress or the free States by the guarantees of the Constitution. Now, for the first time, private individuals in the Northern communities began an agitation in favor of emancipation throughout the United States, on the ground that slavery was a moral evil and a crime. The most extreme and uncompromising advocate of this policy was William Lloyd Garrison of Massachusetts, who even denied the right of the slaveholders to any compensation in case their slaves were taken away from them. Under his influence numerous abolition societies were formed. Largely in consequence of their activity in spreading abroad their views by means of pamphlets, newspapers, etc., symptoms of uneasiness and rebellion were at this time noticed among the negroes at many places

Daniel Webster

contrary to the Constitution? Could South Carolina, under the reserved rights of the States, refer that question for an answer to her own judiciary alone? Mr. Calhoun, at this time, occupied the chair in the Senate, and took no part in the debate. When the same subject came up again (December, 1832) in the Senate, on the question of giving the President power to collect the custom duties in South Carolina by force of arms, Calhoun was no longer Vice President, but a member of that body, and he engaged in a debate with Webster, which for wealth of political knowledge, weight of logic, and power of eloquence is unsurpassed, perhaps unequaled, in American history.

in the South. The Turner slave insurrection in Southampton County, Virginia, resulted in the ruthless murder by negroes of sixty white persons, many of them infants in arms.

371. *The South and Slavery.* That the people of the slave States should have been profoundly stirred was only in accord with the law of self-preservation. They felt as if they stood over a powder magazine, ready to explode the instant the

Jackson and Black Hawk

agents of the abolition societies, however opposed they might be to actual violence, were allowed to pass freely in and out of the Southern communities. Everything they valued and loved, everything they owned, was at stake; the honor of their wives and daughters, the lives of their families, their roofs, their hearths, their estates, were all inextricably involved in the maintenance of kindly relations between master and slave.

372. Indian Affairs. *Black Hawk War.* During this administration, the tribes roaming over Illinois — the Sacs and Foxes — were removed from their hunting grounds in that State and settled on lands in Iowa, which had been given them in exchange. A large body of the Indians, influenced by their chief, Black Hawk, strongly objected to going; and joining with the Winnebagoes of Wisconsin, they showed their ill feeling by repeated attacks on the white settlers, who were pouring into the country. Coming in conflict with the United States troops on the Bad Ax River (1832), they were defeated, and Black Hawk himself was captured.[1]

373. *Seminole War.* In 1835 hostilities broke out with the Seminole tribes in Florida. They had agreed, by formal treaty, to cede their lands to the United States, but became greatly discontented, under the impression that their consent had been obtained by fraud. They finally refused to withdraw. Osceola, their chief, had married a negro half-breed. His wife, while visiting a United States fort with him, was taken away from him on the ground that she was the slave of an American. Osceola himself was arrested and thrown into irons, but soon escaped, and gathering his discontented warriors around him, he waylaid and destroyed a detachment of troops under Colonel Dade (December 28, 1835), and hurrying on to Camp King, in central Florida, killed General Thompson, the Indian agent, and his companions, who were dining at some distance off under the trees. He next drew General Clinch into an ambuscade, and in the following year routed General Gaines. Osceola was finally captured by treachery and died in Fort Moultrie. General Zachary Taylor dispersed an Indian force near Lake Okecho'bee, December 25, 1837, but it was not until 1842 that the Seminoles were at last conquered.

[1] Both Jefferson Davis and Abraham Lincoln took part in this war, — one as an officer in the regular army, the other as a captain of volunteers.

By the refuge which the everglades afforded they had been able to prolong the war seven years.

374. *Indian Territory.* During the administration of Jackson the larger number of the Indian tribes in the Southern States were removed to the Indian Territory, which had been set apart as their place of residence. This was the beginning of the system of Indian reservations in the west which still prevails. The Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Cherokees, the Creeks and Seminoles, were among those withdrawn.

375. French Indemnity. The French government had consented to the payment of $5,000,000 in compensation for losses wrongfully inflicted on American commerce during Napoleon's wars. So great was the delay in paying, that Jackson became impatient, and with characteristic boldness recommended, in a message to Congress, that reprisals should be made on French commerce. The mediation of Great Britain, however, secured the payment by France, without recourse to war.

376. Nominating Conventions. The year 1831 is remarkable in our political history as the first in which a convention of delegates from all parts of the country came together for the purpose of naming candidates for the presidency and vice presidency. In that year nominations were made by the Anti-Masonic convention, representing twenty-two States. A few months later, a convention of National Republicans nominated Henry Clay for the presidency. In the following year a party platform was first used by a national convention. Previous to 1831 the nominations to the presidency had been made by Congressional caucus or by State legislatures and conventions, but without any formal declaration of party policy.

377. Election of Van Buren. Martin Van Buren, a Democrat, was chosen to succeed Jackson. He had been Vice President during Jackson's second administration. Van Buren stood for opposition to a National Bank, to a protective tariff,

and to internal improvements at the expense of the general government. General W. H. Harrison was the candidate of the National Republican or Whig party.

Van Buren's Administration, 1837–1841[1]

378. Financial Storm. *Effect of Jackson's Specie Circular.* Van Buren had hardly taken his seat when the symptoms of a financial panic began to show themselves. Reference has already been made to the speculation prevailing during the administration of Jackson. Payment for public lands was made in the paper money of the State banks. As most of these banks had little capital, the government began to fear lest it should be taking money that was really worthless. Jackson thereupon issued a circular ordering the government's agents to receive only gold or silver or landscrip in all future sales of the public lands. This at once caused a heavy flow of gold and silver to the west, which weakened the eastern banks, because they had been keeping these metals for the redemption of their own paper money. The supply of coin in

Martin Van Buren

[1] Martin Van Buren was born in New York in 1782, and died in 1862. He entered local politics as soon as he reached manhood, and became, in succession, a member of the United States Senate and governor of New York. Jackson appointed him Secretary of State, and also Minister to England, but his nomination for this last position was rejected by the vote of the President's enemies in the Senate. This led to his elevation to the vice presidency during Jackson's second term. It was due to the partiality of Jackson that Van Buren was named for the presidency and elected. In his bearing he was a man of great dignity and courtesy; in character, supple, imperturbable, and cautious; in intellect, able and adroit.

the eastern banks was further diminished by the quantity that went abroad to pay for the enormous amount of foreign merchandise imported, in consequence of prosperous times.

379. *Distribution of the Surplus.* In the last year of Jackson's administration a large surplus of government funds had accumulated. This was due to three causes: (1) the national debt had now been paid off, and there was no interest to meet; (2) the national expenses were small; (3) the tax on imported goods and the sales of public lands brought in an enormous income. What should be done with this surplus? It was decided to distribute it among the States in four annual installments, beginning January 1, and ending October 1, 1837.

380. *The Collapse.* The strongest banks in the country, which had already been weakened by the transfer of gold and silver for the purchase of western lands, were now called upon to distribute among the States the surplus funds which the government had deposited in their safe keeping and which they had loaned out. They were not only compelled to require their borrowers to pay up, but also were deprived of the ability to make further loans. At once a financial stringency set in. People who owed the banks money had to sell their property to meet their debts, but as everybody was trying to sell, it was impossible to find purchasers. Thousands were thus ruined. As the paper money had become discredited, it returned in a flood for redemption to the banks which had issued it. As they had no gold or silver to give in return for it, bank after bank went into insolvency. In the spring of 1837 there were failures in New York City amounting to $100,000,000, and in New Orleans to $50,000,000.[1]

[1] This panic led to the establishment of subtreasuries in the principal cities. Here the funds of the government not deposited in the vaults at Washington are kept. These subtreasuries have taken the place of the old United States Bank and its branches.

381. Slavery Agitation Renewed. In 1837, when the panic caused such universal distress, the slavery agitation began with new vigor. The membership of the abolition societies of the North had by this time grown to 150,000. The number of newspapers supporting the doctrines of these societies rapidly increased, and it was not long before the laws passed by some of the Northern legislatures reflected the opinions and feelings in which the movement had its origin. The sentiment of the great mass of the Northern people, however, still ran strongly against Garrison and his coworkers, because it was believed they were endangering the safety of the Union. Mobs broke up abolition meetings in Philadelphia, Utica, Boston, and other cities and maltreated the speakers. Abolition newspaper offices were wrecked, and the editors were killed or put in jeopardy.

382. The Mormons. In the course of this administration the Mormon sect first attracted public notice. It was founded in 1827 by Joseph Smith, who claimed to have discovered the Book of Mormon, a part of the Bible never before known. His followers increased until they numbered 10,000. They erected a beautiful temple at Nauvoo, Illinois, and began to assume, contrary to the laws of that State, the right to enjoy a plurality of wives. In 1844 Smith was killed by a mob. In 1847 the Mormons, under the leadership of Brigham Young, emigrated to Utah, then in Mexican territory, and there built Salt Lake City.

383. Election of Harrison. In the presidential campaign of 1840 the Democratic party renominated Van Buren, while the Whigs again nominated General William Henry Harrison, and also named John Tyler of Virginia for the vice presidency. They denounced Van Buren as an aristocrat, who, amid the almost universal poverty which his administration had caused, used gold spoons and a silver tea service. Harrison had passed

his manhood on the frontier, and was accustomed to the plain dwelling houses and fare of the backwoods. His political enemies declared that "he would be more at home in a log cabin, drinking hard cider and skinning coons, than living in the White House." His supporters promptly turned the sneer to advantage by holding their political rallies in log cabins, wearing coonskin caps, distributing hard cider among the voters, and dining in public on pigs and opossums. Harrison was elected by a large majority.

William H. Harrison

Harrison and Tyler's Administration, 1841–1845[1]

384. Tyler disappoints the Whigs. Harrison filled the office of President only one month, dying on April 4, 1841, from the worry caused by the importunity of office seekers and his own too earnest devotion to the public business. He was succeeded by John Tyler, the Vice President. Tyler was a Democrat who had been nominated by the Whig party in order to increase Harrison's strength as a candidate in the South. The

[1] William Henry Harrison was born in Virginia in 1773, and died in Washington in 1841. He was sprung from an ancient and distinguished family. After studying medicine, he entered the military service of the United States, and soon rose to be captain. Becoming identified in 1797 with the Northwest Territory, he was appointed, in 1801, governor of Indiana Territory, and continued in that position until 1813. As the hero of Tippecanoe and the battle of the Thames, he stood high in the favor of the people; was a representative in Congress, 1816–1819; member of the Senate, 1825–1828; and Minister to Colombia, 1828–1829.

John Tyler was the first Vice President to be advanced to the presidency by the death of the incumbent. Tyler was born in Virginia in 1790 in the

Whigs soon found out that the new President was opposed to national banks, high tariffs, and internal improvements at the expense of the Federal government, measures which they warmly advocated. The cabinet of Harrison, all loyal Whigs, had been retained by Tyler; but now, with the exception of Daniel Webster, who wished to complete the treaty for the determination of the northeastern boundary (§ 389), they all resigned. Not only did Tyler veto a bill rechartering the United States Bank, but also two tariff bills for the protection of manufactures. A third bill, which recognized the same principle, but in a modified form, obtained his approval.

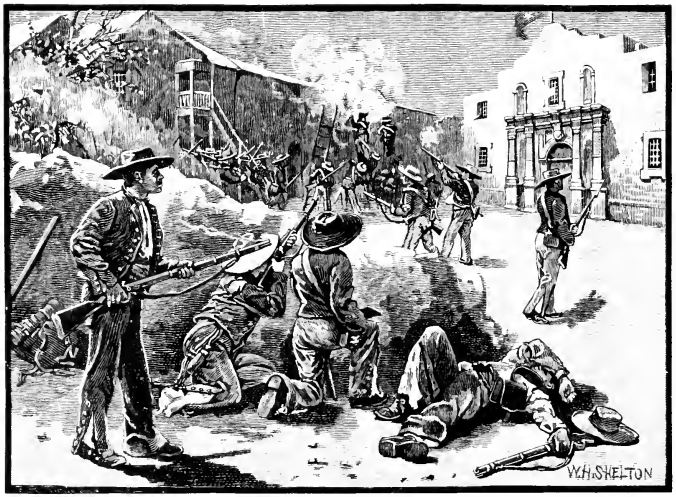
John Tyler

385. Dorr's Rebellion. In 1842 Rhode Island was the scene of serious internal dissensions. In that State the right to vote was confined by the original charter, still in operation (§ 135), to the property holders and their eldest sons. The people in vain petitioned against this qualification of the suffrage. Finally they drew up a constitution, and chose Thomas W. Dorr to be governor. The validity of his election was disputed, because it was claimed the charter was still in

county adjacent to that in which Harrison first saw the light. Before the age of thirty-seven he had been elected a member of the House of Representatives, governor of his native State, and United States senator. Although nominated by the Whig convention as the associate of Harrison on its presidential ticket, Tyler had been conspicuous as a Democrat who gave an unwavering support to the doctrine of State sovereignty. He was only thought of as a Whig because he disapproved of Jackson's determination to suppress nullification, and detested the general methods of that Republican autocrat. In 1861 he became the presiding officer of the Peace Convention (§ 421), and was a member of the Confederate Congress. He died in 1862.

force. The people rushed to arms, and tried to seize the arsenal and other public property. The insurrection was only put down after the President had been called upon for aid; but a more liberal constitution was adopted, and went into operation in 1843.

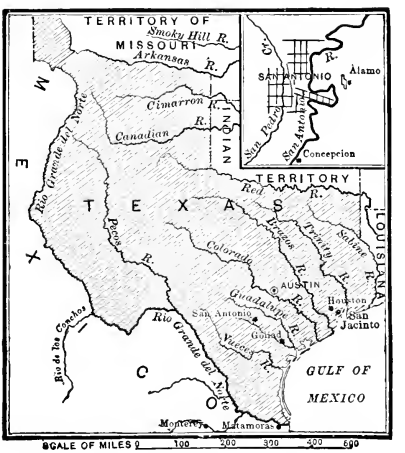
386. Independence of Texas. *The Alamo.* Beginning in 1820, a great wave of people, principally from the South-



Attack on the Alamo

ern States, had been flowing into the Mexican province of Texas. Moses Austin was the first to obtain a large grant, and his example was followed by many others. The American population soon grew restive under Mexican rule, and, in 1835, they drove the Mexican troops across the Rio Grande. In 1836 Santa Anna, the president of Mexico, led an army into Texas, and on March 6, 1836, the American garrison of the Alamo (a mission church at San Antonio) was massacred.

387. *Goliad and San Jacinto.* Santa Anna next attacked the Texan troops stationed at Goliad, which were forced to surrender, but only after the arrival of heavy Mexican reënforcements. As soon as the Texans had laid down their arms the Mexicans darted upon them and massacred them to a man. Seven hundred Texan soldiers, under General Samuel Houston (hus'ton), were now the only Texan army left. At first Houston retreated before Santa Anna, but turning suddenly at San Jacinto (April 21, 1836), and raising the battle cry, "Remember the Alamo," he fell, with the fury of a summer tempest, on the Mexican ranks and swept them from the field. The independence of Texas, which had been declared on March 2, 1836, was soon recognized by the United States, England, and France.



Texas

388. South favors Admission of Texas. Texas almost at once petitioned to enter the Union, but as Mexico had not acknowledged its independence, these overtures were not accepted, for fear of trouble with the Mexican Republic. The South strongly favored the admission of Texas. Florida, coming in as a slave State in 1845, gave a majority of two senators to the slave States, but this majority, it was known, would be soon destroyed by the admission of Iowa as a free State. Unless Texas should be added to the ranks of the slave States, the South would have no more territory to draw upon, while the free States could look forward to the admission

of a large number of other free States, to be carved out of the region lying north of the line agreed on in the Missouri Compromise (§ 348). Texas lay south of this line, and it would furnish territory for the creation of half a dozen slave States. The South had lost control of the House of Representatives, but as long as she had control of the Senate, there was no danger of national legislation hostile to the interests of the slaveholders. Southern sentiment was sufficiently strong to lead to the passage of a joint resolution for the annexation of Texas to the United States on March 1, 1845. This was approved in June by the Texan Congress, and Texas was admitted to the Union in December, 1845, with the right to divide its territory into five States, should its people wish it.

389. Webster-Ashburton Treaty. In 1842 a treaty, known as the Webster-Ashburton treaty, from the names of the negotiators, was made between Great Britain and the United States, under which the northeastern boundary line (Maine-New Brunswick) was settled as it stands to-day. The forty-ninth parallel had been agreed upon in 1818 as the boundary line east of the Rockies; the boundary line west of these mountains was left to be determined at a later date.

390. Joint Occupation of Oregon. In 1818 Great Britain and the United States had agreed to hold Oregon in joint occupation for a period of ten years. When this period ended, the time for joint occupation was extended indefinitely, with the understanding, however, that one year's notice from either party was to bring it to a close. The first settlements in this Oregon region — which soon came to have the limits of 42°, 54° 40′, the Rocky Mountains, and the Pacific — had been made by the American Fur Company. The best known was Astoria, founded by John Jacob Astor, a leading member of the company. Hunters and trappers roamed over the face of the country. By 1841 a number of permanent settlers —

English and American — had come in. In 1842, however, a large company of American settlers emigrated over the mountains to Oregon. They were soon followed by others, so that by 1846 the American population in Oregon numbered 12,000. A cry soon arose for the settlement of the boundary and termination of the joint occupation. The boundary was finally agreed upon in 1846 by extending the forty-ninth parallel to the coast, and then drawing a line down the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the Pacific (see maps, pp. 214 and 262).

391. Election of Polk. In the election of 1844 James K. Polk, of Tennessee, the Democratic candidate, was chosen President over Henry Clay, the Whig. Mr. Polk favored the reoccupation of Oregon and the reannexation of Texas,[1] whether it would bring about a war with Mexico or not. At this election, Mr. Birney, the candidate of the Abolitionists, obtained a popular vote of 62,000.

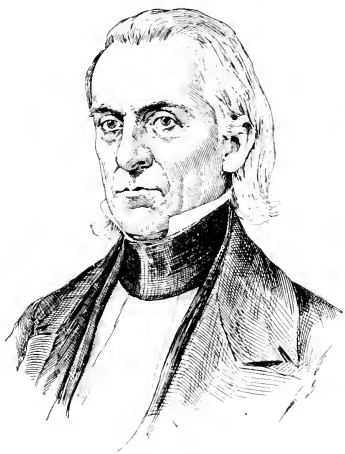
Polk's Administration, 1845–1849[2]

392. Mexican War. *War Declared.* Mexico still refused to recognize the independence of Texas, though now a State of the Union. Both claimed a strip of territory between the Nueces

[1] President Tyler had negotiated a secret treaty with the Texan authorities, by which Texas was to become a part of the United States. The Senate rejected this treaty.

[2] James Knox Polk was born in North Carolina in 1795, and died in Tennessee in 1849. When ten years old he removed to Tennessee with his parents, and at the age of thirty was elected to the lower House of Congress, and remained a member during fourteen years, a part of which time he filled the office of Speaker. In 1839 he became governor of Tennessee. His nomination to the presidency was the first appearance of the "dark horse" in the history of the chief magistracy. There was so much dissension in the Democratic party, in consequence of the antagonism between the friends and enemies of Van Buren, the leader of the party, that it was finally determined to bring forward a candidate so obscure, comparatively, that no substantial objection to him could be offered by either of the contending wings. The wisdom of this course was shown in Polk's election over so able and popular a man as Clay, who was greatly superior to him in influence, capacity, and experience.

River and the Rio Grande. The President directed General Zachary Taylor (§ 373) to take possession of this region, in order to prevent the intrusion of the Mexicans. Taylor, in January, 1846, marched to the Rio Grande, and here a reconnoitering party of American troops was attacked by a large body of Mexicans. Taylor fell back toward the Nueces River, but returning, won a signal victory over the Mexicans at Palo Alto (pah'lō ahl'tō)[1] (May 8), and a day later at Resaca de la Palma (rā sah'kah dā lah pahl' mah) (May 9), by a rush of cavalry under Captain May. War with Mexico was formally declared at Washington on May 13.

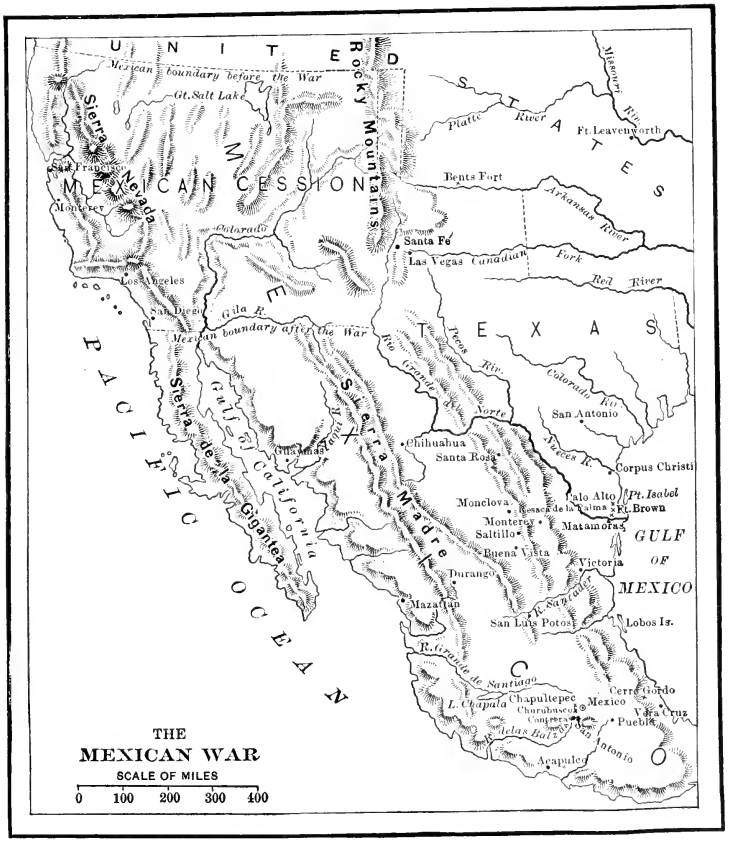


James K. Polk

393. Kearny's Campaign. The President issued a call for 50,000 volunteers. Under the plan of campaign now adopted, General Kearny (kär'ny) was to descend upon New Mexico, and General Wool upon the northern Mexican states, while General Taylor was to advance southward from Matamoras. In August Kearny captured Santa Fé, and having subdued the whole of New Mexico, set out for California. Captain John C. Frémont', who was engaged in exploring the far West, had already conquered this region, and with the assistance of Kearny and Commodore Stockton, who commanded the Ameri-

[1] Among the few who perished on the American side at Palo Alto was Major Ringgold, of Maryland. He had organized the flying artillery service, and by his skill and courage had greatly contributed to the success of the day. "Leave me alone," he cried out to those who came to his aid on his receiving a mortal wound, "you are needed in front."

can fleet on the coast, was able to hold it permanently. In the meanwhile Colonel Doniphan, a lieutenant of Kearny's, had marched 1000 miles southward from Santa Fé, had cap-



tured Chihuahua (che wah'wah), one of the largest and wealthiest cities in the Mexican Republic, and then had made his way to Saltillo (sahl teel'yō), and thence to New Orleans.

394. Taylor's Campaign. *Monterey.* By this time General Wool had been forced to give up his expedition against the northern states of Mexico, and unite his army with Taylor's at Monterey (mŏn tā rā′). On September 21 that city was assaulted by the American troops. The walls were scaled, and from house to house, room to room, and roof to roof, a hand-to-hand combat with the Mexicans was carried on. It

Taylor at Monterey

was not until September 24 that the Mexican general surrendered.

395. *Buena Vista.* Taylor's army was soon reduced to 5000 by the transfer of his ablest officers and most experienced troops to the force which General Scott, the commander in chief, was about to lead against the city of Mexico. General Santa Anna, receiving news of that fact, put his army, now 20,000 strong, in motion, and came up with Taylor at Buena Vista (bwā′nah vees′tah), February 23, 1847. At first

the Mexican troops were successful in driving back the Americans, but at the critical moment Captains Bragg and Sherman fired round after round of grapeshot into the ranks of the foe. The latter were finally repulsed all along the line, fell into disorder, and in the night retired from the field. The whole of northeast Mexico lay at the feet of the conqueror. It was now possible to concentrate the entire American military force in the capture of Vera Cruz (vĕ'rah krooz), a strongly fortified town on the seacoast.

396. Scott's Campaign. *March upon the Capital.* General Scott invested Vera Cruz on March 9 with an army of 12,000 men and began preparations for a siege. After a siege of a number of days the city, though defended by the strongest fortress in America after Quebec, the castle of San Juan de Ulloa (sahn hoo ahn' dā oo lō'ah), surrendered, largely in consequence of the engineering skill of Captain Robert E. Lee. The advance upon the city of Mexico began immediately. At Cer'ro Gor'do, a pass in the mountains, a strong detachment of Mexican troops was completely routed (April 18). It was not until August that the American army reached the top of the Cordilleras (côr dil yā'raz), and beheld the towers and domes of the city of Mexico glittering in the distance. Descending the mountains, the Americans captured the intrenched camp at Contreras (kon trā'rahs), August 20; and on the same day they stormed the heights of Churubusco (choo roo boos'ko).

397. *Capture of the Capital.* On September 8, Molino del Rey (mō lee'no dāl rā') was captured, and there followed, on September 13, a grand assault on Chapultepec (chah pool ta pĕk'), the principal stronghold of the capital, perched on such an abrupt height that scaling ladders had to be used in storming it. In a few days Scott marched into the city. This brought hostilities to a close.

398. Guadalupe-Hidalgo Treaty. Under the treaty of Guada-

lupe-Hidalgo (gwah dah loo'pā e dahl'gō), February 2, 1848, an area of over 500,000 square miles reaching south to the Gila (hē'lah) River and west to the Pacific was ceded to the United States.[1] In return, the United States agreed to pay Mexico $15,000,000 and to pay claims to the amount of $3,500,000 which our citizens had against Mexico. Among the officers taking part in this war destined to win great fame in the War

Scott's Entry into City of Mexico

of Secession were Lee, Grant, Johnston, Sherman, Thomas, McClellan, Jackson, Meade, Hood, and Bragg.

399. Wilmot Proviso. A year and a half before the conclusion of the war and the acquisition of the new territory, David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, moved in Congress (August, 1846) that any soil which the United States should buy of Mexico, no matter where situated, should be free. This was suggested

[1] The Gadsden Purchase (1853) gave shape to the southern boundary line as it is to-day (map, p. 366).

by the fact that Mexico had abolished slavery in 1827, but it was opposed to the spirit of the Missouri Compromise, which made the parallel of 36° 30′ the boundary line between slave and free soil.[1] The resolution was passed by the House, but rejected by the Senate, and the same thing happened again in 1847. The Proviso, as it was known, excited strong opposition in the South, because, if it became law, it would place the slave States in the power of the free, by taking away, even after the division of Texas, all hope of preserving in the Senate the numerical equality between the North and South, which had already been lost to the South in the House. The growing sentiment at the North in favor of abolition was accepted by the Southern people, now grown thoroughly alarmed, as a warning that the interest of the Southern States in their slaves would not be respected when their ability to defend this interest in at least one branch of Congress had passed away.

400. Gold in California. In 1848 gold was discovered in California at John Sutter's mill near the site of Coloma, on a branch of the Sacramento River. The discovery was made by a workman who was building a mill race for Sutter. In spite of every precaution the news rapidly spread, and all forms of regular business were suspended in the eagerness to search for gold. The

Vicinity of Coloma

[1] The spirit of the Missouri Compromise consisted in dividing the unsettled parts of the west as equally as possible between slave and free States. If the Missouri Compromise line had been extended to the Pacific, after the war with Mexico, a very large part of the territory acquired by that war would have been situated south of the line. Mr. Wilmot's proposition was regarded by the South as designed to deprive her of this advantage.

fact becoming known throughout the United States, a rush for the new El Dora'do on the Pacific coast began. Some of the adventurers went in vessels by way of Cape Horn; some traversed the Isthmus of Panama; while others, in spite of tribes of hostile Indians, made the journey on horseback, or in canvas-covered wagons, across the prairies and the Rocky Mountains. In two years, a city of 20,000 people sprang up on the Bay of San Francisco, and California was occupied by a population of 100,000.[1]

Zachary Taylor

401. Election of Taylor. In 1848 General Zachary Taylor and Millard Fillmore were elected President and Vice President respectively. They were the candidates of the Whig party. The candidates of the party opposed to slavery polled nearly 300,000 votes in the popular election.

Taylor and Fillmore's Administration, 1849–1853[2]

402. Slavery Agitation Resumed. General Taylor's administration lasted only sixteen months, when he was succeeded by Millard Fillmore. Before President Taylor died, however, Con-

[1] The chief gold mines in the United States worked before the discovery of gold in California were situated in the Southern Appalachians, and yielded about $20,000,000 in all.

[2] Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia in 1784, and died in Washington in 1850. Through the influence of his kinsman, Mr. Madison, then Secretary of State, he obtained a lieutenancy in the army, and rose grade by grade to a major generalship. His career in the Seminole and Mexican wars has already been detailed. He won from his soldiers the memorable sobriquet "Rough and

gress (1849–1850) was torn by violent debates over the question of shutting slavery out of the new Territories. California was now seeking admission to the Union, with a constitution opposed to slavery. As it lay partly south of an extension of the Missouri Compromise line (§ 348), and had been largely settled by Southern people, the Southern members of Congress were strongly opposed to its admission as a free State.

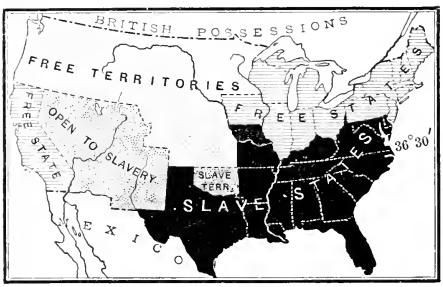
Millard Fillmore

403. Compromise of 1850. The controversy was quieted for a time by a series of resolutions, offered by Clay, which provided (1) that California should be allowed to come in as a free State; (2) that the remainder of the Mexican cession should be organized as the Territories of New Mexico and Utah, without any provision concerning slavery, the people being left free to make them free or slave as they pleased; (3) that Texas should be paid $10,000,000 for the cession of territory claimed by her north and west of her present boundaries; (4) that a Fugitive Slave Law should be enacted providing more effectively for the return of all slaves escaping into the free States; and (5) that the slave trade should be prohibited

Ready." So little interest had he taken in public affairs previous to his election to the presidency, that he had not cast a vote in the course of forty years. The fact that he was a slaveholder alienated the support of many Whigs. Few of the Presidents, however, have enjoyed greater respect and popularity. In character he was frank, sincere, honest, and resolute.

Millard Fillmore, his successor, was born in New York State in 1800. He began active life as a fuller; then taught school and studied law; then, in turn, was a member of the State Assembly and of Congress. Having been defeated for the governorship of his native State, he was elected to the office of comptroller, and while filling this position, was nominated to the vice presidency.

in the District of Columbia. A bill, called the Omnibus Bill, was introduced for enacting the first three of these measures, but, in the end, all the measures were passed as separate laws.



Compromise of 1850

The whole series of measures is known as the Compromise of 1850, because in some of the provisions the wishes of the North were followed; in others, of the South.

404. Rise of New Leaders. There were now taking an active part in public life men who were destined to win even greater national fame in the near future, among others, Jefferson Davis, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs, Stephen A. Douglas, Charles Sumner, William H. Seward, and Salmon P. Chase. The great leaders of the immediate past were now vanishing. Mr Calhoun had died in March, 1850; Mr. Clay followed in June, 1852; and Mr. Webster died in the course of the same year. Thus passed away, at short intervals, the "Great Triumvirate."[1]

[1] The principal events in the lives of these three great statesmen have been mentioned in connection with the general history of the country, such as Calhoun's support of the Doctrine of Nullification, Webster's stand in the debates in the Senate with Hayne and Calhoun, for an "indivisible Union," Clay's advocacy of the "American System" and the Compromises represented by the tariff act of 1833 and the measures of 1850. Clay, who was born in Virginia, settled in Kentucky and became the spokesman of the West; Calhoun voiced the South; and Webster the North. Clay acted sometimes with Calhoun, but more often with Webster. Under all circumstances, however, like Webster, he was a firm upholder of the paramount authority of the Union; Calhoun believed that each State was sovereign and that the Union was a compact of sovereign States. All three had filled the highest position in the Cabinet — the secretaryship of state. Webster had occupied that office under three administrations. For seven years Calhoun had been Secretary of War, and for seven, Vice President. Clay had been Speaker of the House of Represen-

405. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty and Treaty with Japan. During Fillmore's administration Great Britain and the United States entered into a treaty not to seek to obtain an exclusive control over any ship canal which should be dug from ocean to ocean, in Nicaragua, or any other part of Central America. This is known as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, from the names of the American and English statesmen who negotiated it. An expedition to Japan by Captain M. C. Perry forced that country, in 1854, to enter into a treaty of peace and commerce. This treaty led directly to the opening of Japanese ports to all nations for the first time.

406. Election of Pierce. In the presidential election of 1852 Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate, who favored upholding the terms of the Compromise of 1850 (§ 403), was successful over his Whig opponent, General Winfield Scott. John P. Hale, the candidate of the Abolitionists, who opposed the Compromise measures, especially the Fugitive Slave Act, received 156,000 votes.

Pierce's Administration, 1853–1857[1]

407. "Uncle Tom's Cabin." There appeared, in 1852, a book which, by painting in the liveliest colors of fiction, the dark aspects of the institution of slavery, greatly strengthened the

tatives. But it was on the floor of the Senate, when in the maturity of their powers, that these three celebrated men appeared to the most advantage. Unlike Calhoun and Webster, Clay had not enjoyed a college education, but in impassioned and moving eloquence he was the superior of either of his two great rivals; Webster surpassed in grandeur of thought and expression; Calhoun in logical force. A common disappointment entered into the lives of all three, — failure to secure the presidency. But even that exalted honor was not necessary to fill the measure of their fame.

[1] Franklin Pierce was born in New Hampshire, in 1804, and died in 1869. He was elected a member of the State legislature in his twenty-first year; of the lower House of Congress in his twenty-ninth; and of the Senate in his thirty-third. He was offered the position of Attorney General in the cabinet of President Polk, but declined it. Entering the Mexican War as a volunteer, he rose to the rank of a brigadier general.

Abolitionists, who were now striving to defeat the Fugitive Slave Law (§ 403) by the passage of "personal liberty" bills, and the establishment of the "underground railway" for aiding slaves to escape to Canada. The author was Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, who sought to enlist the sympathies and moral support of mankind by drawing a very unfavorable picture of the South's treatment of the slave. In the form of an interesting story, this attack on slavery reached all classes in the North, and intensified the popular opposition there to the further spread of slavery.[1]

Franklin Pierce

408. Kansas-Nebraska Act. In 1854, the region between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains, north of 37°, was divided into two territories, Nebraska and Kansas, and under the act of Congress creating them, drawn by Stephen A. Douglas, the Missouri Compromise was declared inoperative in accord with the principles of the Compromise Measures of 1850, which allowed Utah and New Mexico to accept or reject slavery as they chose (§ 403). The question whether Kansas and Nebraska should adopt slavery or not, was left to their Territorial legislatures. This was what was known as "popular or squatter sovereignty." Had the terms of the Missouri Compromise been still in force, no question of slavery would have arisen in connection with these States, as they were north of the line (§ 348).

[1] "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was followed, in 1857, by "The Impending Crisis of the South" by Hinton Helper, a citizen of North Carolina, in which all slaveholders were threatened with spoliation, and exclusion from church and society, if they did not free their slaves.

409. "Bleeding Kansas." The principal energies of the opponents of slavery were now turned toward securing a majority of votes in the two Territories, as this would enable them to adopt constitutions which would shut out the institution. Kansas was settled first, and its soil became, in consequence, the scene of a struggle so fierce and sanguinary that the territory was known as "Bleeding Kansas." Two emigrant societies were started in Massachusetts for the sole purpose of sending out settlers to that Territory. In the meanwhile slaveholders from Missouri had poured across the border and were building towns. Bloody disputes arose, and a loud outcry of fraud in the elections was raised by both sides. Each party set up a Territorial government and sent a delegate to Congress. Congress admitted the proslavery delegate,[1] and the President hurried troops to Kansas to back up the proslavery governor and legislature.

410. Know-nothing Party. As an enormous number of Europeans were, each year, pouring into the United States, and acquiring great political power by their votes, the cry began to be heard: "Americans must rule America." Among these newcomers were many Irishmen who were Roman Catholics. A political organization known as the American Party was formed, whose main principle was the shutting out of both foreigners and Roman Catholics from all office. As it was carried on in the manner of a secret society, and as its members when questioned as to its principles were sworn to profess

[1] The bitter feeling among the opponents of slavery in Congress was greatly increased by these events. Senator Sumner, in the course of one of his speeches, reflected unjustly on Senator Butler, of South Carolina, who was not present at the time. The nephew of Senator Butler, Preston S. Brooks, a member of the House of Representatives from the same State, resented this attack, and with a small gutta-percha cane assaulted Sumner as he sat at his desk in the Senate chamber. The injuries which the Massachusetts senator received disabled him for a time, but increased his popularity and influence in the North. Brooks resigned, but was promptly reëlected.

entire ignorance, it soon came to be termed the "Know-nothing Party." In a few years it disappeared, but for a time had considerable influence on the course of politics.

James Buchanan

411. Election of Buchanan. In the presidential election of 1856 the Democratic candidate, James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, was successful. John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, was chosen Vice President. All the political parties which favored the abolition of slavery, or opposed its extension to the Territories, had united, under the name of the Republican Party, in the nomination of John C. Frémont (§ 393) for President. Frémont carried the vote of eleven States.

Buchanan's Administration, 1857–1861[1]

412. Controversy over Slavery. *Dred Scott* was the slave of an army surgeon who, as ordered, passed from post to post, and State to State. In this way, Scott, in attending his master, had lived in Illinois and Minnesota where slavery was prohibited.

[1] James Buchanan was born in Pennsylvania in 1791, and died there in 1868. He had, in succession, filled the positions of representative, senator, and Secretary of State; and just previous to his election, had returned from England, where, with distinguished ability, he had occupied the post of Minister. Buchanan had advocated the subtreasury scheme (§ 380), had favored the annexation of Texas, and had supported the Compromise Measure of 1850. He began his administration with the "avowed object of destroying any sectional party, whether North or South, and restoring, if possible, that national feeling between the different States, that had existed during the early years of the Republic." A statesman of ripe experience, he became President at a time when the Republic was tossing in a sea of passion which no man could control.

He made this fact the ground of a claim for freedom. The case was, on appeal, brought into the Supreme Court, which decided (1857) that it had no jurisdiction, as a slave could never become a citizen of the United States. Chief Justice Taney, however, then went on to give his opinion to the effect that a slave was personal property, and could be carried into the free States, without depriving his master of the right of ownership. This

Capture of John Brown

deliverance greatly alarmed the North, and a more resolute spirit was at once shown by many Northern legislatures in defeating the Fugitive Slave law, a course that confessedly amounted in practice to nullification of the Constitution, and the laws in its support passed by Congress.

413. *John Brown's Raid.* The bitter feeling thus stirred up led, in 1859, to an armed attack upon a Southern com-

munity by one of the Abolitionists. In October of that year John Brown, who had taken an active part in the Kansas troubles (§ 409), crossed the Potomac, to Harpers Ferry, Virginia (map, p. 263), with a small band of supporters, and boldly seized the arsenal there. He planned to make this the starting point of an uprising of the slaves, which was to spread all over the South. He had brought with him a large number of pikes for use in arming the negroes against their masters, but no disposition was shown by those in the vicinity to join him. Brown and all of his followers who survived were, after a desperate resistance, captured by a squad of marines under command of Colonel Robert E. Lee. Brown was tried for murder and inciting slaves to rebel, was convicted and hanged. One of his sons had been killed outright; another, mortally wounded.

414. *Lecompton Constitution.* The Territorial legislature of Kansas having called a convention to adopt a constitution previous to its admission as a State, those persons who were opposed to slavery declined to take any part either in the drafting or ratification of this constitution, and it followed that the one drawn up and voted for recognized the institution. This was the Lecompton Constitution, which derived its name from the place where the convention met. Submitted a second time to the people, on account of some irregularity in the original proceedings, a majority of 10,000 voted against it, because those opposing slavery now voted for the first time. In spite of this the President in his message recommended the admission of Kansas as a State under the Lecompton Constitution. A bill was finally passed offering large grants of land to the new State if she should agree to adopt the Lecompton Constitution. But again a majority voted against it. The dispute led to a breach among the Democratic members, a large number of whom opposed the

constitution on the ground that to force it on the people of Kansas was contrary to the doctrine of popular sovereignty (§ 408). As a result, Kansas remained a Territory until 1861 when it was admitted as a State under a constitution prohibiting slavery, which had been framed in 1859.

415. *Lincoln-Douglas Debates.* In 1858 there occurred in Illinois a series of debates which had an important influence in strengthening the opposition of the North to the further extension of slavery. Stephen A. Douglas, the author of the Kansas-Nebraska Act (§ 408), and Abraham Lincoln, a prominent Republican lawyer, were candidates for the United States Senate from Illinois. Douglas, who was a Democrat, was seeking reëlection. At first, the speeches, though in reply to each other, were not delivered from the same platform. Lincoln began with a speech at Springfield. Douglas replied at Chicago, a few weeks later. This was kept up, at short intervals, until it was agreed that there should be joint debates between them. Seven speeches in all were delivered by each candidate, and all the great public questions involving slavery were ably and thoroughly discussed. Lincoln was defeated, but the prominence which he gained by his presentation of the Republican view led to his nomination to the presidency.

Stephen A. Douglas

416. Election of Lincoln. *Principles of the Candidates.* The hopelessness of the division in the Democratic party over the question of slavery in the Territories was shown in the action of their presidential conventions in 1860. One convention nominated Stephen A. Douglas. Another, John C. Breckinridge (§ 411). There were now four presidential candidates seeking election: Douglas, who urged that the people of each

Territory should be allowed to decide whether they should have slavery or not; Breckinridge, who held that a citizen could hold slaves in any Territory whether a majority of its people opposed slavery or not; Lincoln, the candidate of the Republican party, who advocated the exclusion of slavery from all of the Territories, whether the people favored it or not; Bell, the candidate of the Constitutional Union party, whose watchwords were "loyalty to the Constitution, and devotion to the Union." Lincoln received a majority of the electoral votes.[1]

417. Secession of South Carolina. The triumph of the Republican party created a profound sense of uneasiness in the South, and in all that part of the Union there were soon many signs of popular excitement. On December 20, 1860, the people of South Carolina met in convention and passed an ordinance of secession. It was soon seen that most of the other Southern States would at once follow her example, and in having recourse to this extreme step they expressly declared that they asserted, not their right of revolution, like their forefathers in the times of the Declaration of Independence, but their right under the Constitution, by which alone they defended their withdrawal from the Union.

418. Motives of Secession. *The Southern people* maintained that the Constitution was simply a compact or agreement between "free, sovereign, and independent States," which could be revoked by either side when circumstances demanded and justified it. Such circumstances appeared to the South to have arisen in the election of Lincoln, because the main principle of the Republican party was the exclusion of slavery from the Territories, which virtually meant the exclusion of the Southern slaveholders. This, the Southern people deeply

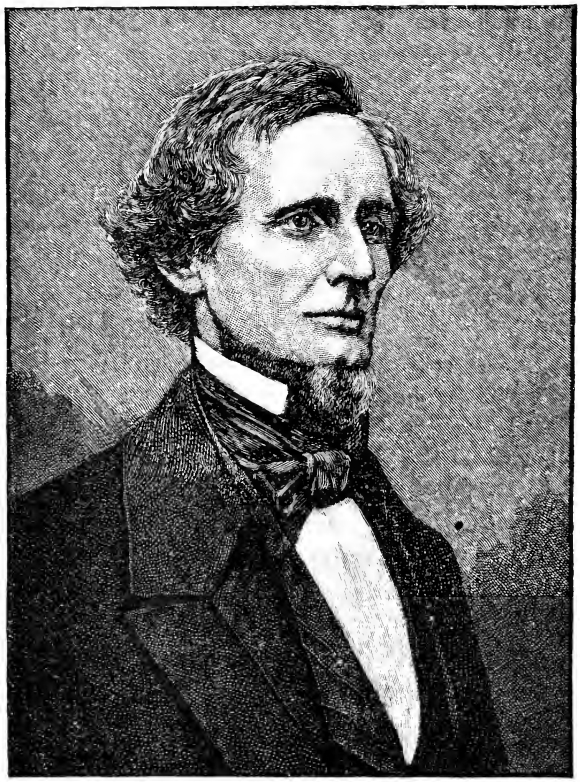
[1] Like Jackson, Polk, Taylor, and Buchanan before him, Lincoln failed to receive a majority of the popular vote. Buchanan lacked 188,815, about five per cent of the votes cast; Lincoln lacked 472,075, about ten per cent.

resented, first, because they held that the Territories were the property of all the States alike, and, therefore, of the slaveholder as well as of the free soiler; secondly, because the restriction of the institution of slavery to the Southern States signified the permanent numerical superiority of the free States in Congress, a condition which the Southern people felt certain would lead in the end to the extinction of slavery in the States where it still existed.

419. *Should the slaves be freed,* the South thought she could foresee for herself no higher condition than that prevailing in Jamaica and Haiti; in the meanwhile it certainly meant the complete destruction of the larger part of the wealth which had been accumulating since the beginning of the colonial age. Even if slavery should not be abolished by an act of Congress, the South believed that she had held up to her the prospect of repeated invasions like that of John Brown, which would inevitably produce an uprising of the slaves. Such an insurrection would end in the wiping out of either the white or the black population of the Southern States, after atrocities surpassing the power of language to describe or even of the imagination to conceive.

420. *Subordination of the State.* Apart from the question of slavery, the Southern people, who had been long accustomed to think that each State was "free, sovereign, and independent," saw with the utmost alarm the general prevalence in the North of a sentiment which would subordinate all the interests of the States to the interests of the nation, a condition which the people of the South thought would, sooner or later, increase the central power until it would reduce State lines to a mere geographical expression As the State was, according to the Southern view, the only real bulwark which local government had against the encroachments of the national government, the Southern people in withdrawing from the Union firmly

believed that they were preserving that principle of independent local administration which they cherished as the most sacred of political inheritances, because they deemed it the only guarantee of the liberty of the individual.



Jefferson Davis

421. Confederacy Organized. *Peace Congress.* By February 1861, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had followed the example of South Carolina. Virginia

was very reluctant to break the tie with the Union, and in the hope of bringing all the States together again invited them to send delegates to a peace congress to be held in Washington. The congress met, but accomplished nothing, as the differences in opinion were irreconcilable.

422. *Confederate Constitution.* A congress composed of delegates from all the States which had seceded (except Texas) assembled in Montgomery, Alabama, on February 4, 1861, and at once proceeded to form a provisional government for the new Confederacy, and to elect Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, to the offices of President and Vice President respectively.[1] Shortly after this a constitution was framed and ratified by the seceding States. Under this constitution each State was declared to be sovereign and independent; taxation to build up manufactures was prohibited; any Territory admitted to statehood was to be allowed to come in with or without slavery, as its people preferred; and all internal improvements were to be made at the expense of the

Alexander H. Stephens

[1] Jefferson Davis was called to the principal office in the Confederate Government on account of his military and political experience. He was born in Kentucky in 1808, and died in Louisiana in 1889. After graduating at West Point he was engaged as a lieutenant in the Black Hawk War, but, resigning his commission, settled as a planter in Mississippi. In 1845 he was elected to Congress. Having greatly distinguished himself at the battles of Monterey and Buena Vista, he was, after the Mexican War ended, appointed to the Senate of the United States, and continued to fill that position by election until 1850, when he resigned to become a candidate for the office of governor of Mississippi. As Secretary of War in the cabinet of Pierce he won a high reputation for administrative ability. Again elected to the Senate, he remained a

States and not of the general government. It will be observed that these had been the chief points of difference in the controversy between the Northern and Southern people.

423. *Confederate Commissioners in Washington.* Davis was inaugurated President of the Confederate States at Montgomery, on February 18, 1861, and at once sent three commissioners to Washington, who were to establish diplomatic relations between the governments of the United States and the Confederate States, and to settle in a friendly way all questions in dispute between them. In the meanwhile commissioners from South Carolina had arrived in Washington and were demanding the withdrawal of all the Federal troops who were garrisoning the forts situated in the boundaries of that State.

Charleston Harbor

424. **"Star of the West."** Major Robert Anderson had evac-

member of that body until Mississippi withdrew from the Union. The farewell address which he delivered to the members was marked by warm feeling and extraordinary eloquence. Davis was a man of wide information, of varied accomplishments, of courteous and winning manners, and chivalrous and unselfish instincts.

Alexander H. Stephens was born in 1812 in Georgia and was educated at the State University. In 1843 he was elected a member of Congress and was re-elected for six terms. After the close of the war he was again elected and remained a member during five years. He was chosen to be governor of Georgia in 1882, and died in 1883. Few men in the South had enjoyed so extensive a political experience as Stephens when selected as the Vice President of the Confederacy, and not one was more respected for uprightness, ability, and conservative wisdom.

uated Fort Moultrie and taken possession of Fort Sumter, also in Charleston harbor, the strongest fortification in South Carolina. Instead of commanding him to return to Fort Moultrie, as urged, Buchanan gave orders that the steamer *Star of the West* should leave New York City with reënforcements and provisions for the troops stationed at Fort Sumter. While this vessel was making its way up Charleston harbor one night in January the Southern batteries on shore fired on her and forced her to retire and put to sea. No other steps were taken to precipitate the issue further during Buchanan's administration.

Admission of New States, 1829–1861, and General Development

425. The New States (map, pp. 262, 263). Of the ten States admitted to the Union between the years 1829 and 1861, only Michigan (1837), Wisconsin (1848), and part of Minnesota were carved out of the territory which had belonged to the United States from the beginning. Florida (1845) had been ceded by Spain. Texas (1845) and California (1850) had been possessions of Mexico; Arkansas (1836), Iowa (1846), about half of Minnesota (1858), and Kansas (1861), of France. Oregon (1859) formed part of the Oregon country which was acquired by exploration and settlement, and by cession of Spanish and English claims.

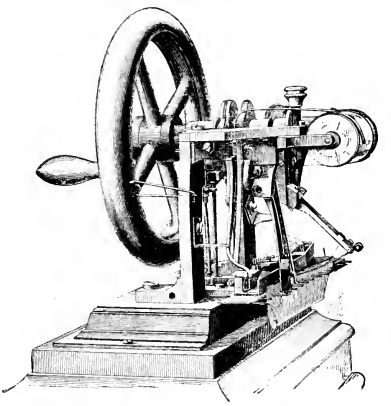
426. Preponderance of Power. The admission of these ten new States increased the political power of the free States. Only three — Texas, Florida, and Arkansas — had slave institutions. Had the South remained in the Union after the inauguration of Lincoln, the Senate would have shown a majority of eight on the side of the free States, and the measures which those States favored. Their majority in the House of Representatives would have been overwhelming.

427. Foreign Immigration. One reason why more free than

slave States were admitted during this period was the increase in the number of foreign immigrants. The rush began in 1842. In that year 100,000 Europeans came in. In 1854 the number rose to 428,000. Hardly any of this enormous new population sought homes in the Southern Territories or States; the great mass settled in the north and west because they were not in sympathy with slavery, and also because those divisions of the Union offered a great variety of occupations in manufactures and the mechanical trades. The South was still purely agricultural, with an ample supply of slave labor. This mighty stream of foreign settlers not only hastened the admission of new free States, but also swelled the population of the old free States, and thus further increased the number of representatives in the lower House of Congress, who were opposed to slavery.

428. Concentration of Population. The greater facilities for transportation, whether by railway or steamboat, which did so much to quicken the settlement of the middle West during the first period under the Constitution, did equally as much during the second to make more dense the population of the older States. Now that railroads especially were opening up all parts of these States, and bringing them in close relations with the world at large, thus increasing their means of acquiring wealth, there was not the same disposition in their inhabitants to emigrate to the new country on the frontier. Arkansas and Michigan were the only two States admitted to the Union in the interval of nearly a quarter of a century between 1821 and 1845. Iowa and Wisconsin were chiefly settled by people from the Mississippi Valley. The same in a measure was true of Texas and Arkansas. Of all the new States, California alone derived its population as much from the eastern States as from the western. This was because the prospect of finding gold drew adventurers from all the States.

429. A General Improvement. As the wealth and population of the older States increased, there was a great improvement in everything relating to the comforts and conveniences of life. In the principal cities the streets were carefully paved and sewered, and at night fully lighted. Omnibus and car lines afforded a constant means of conveyance, and there was an abundant supply of water for all purposes. A system of postage had been adopted, and letters were delivered at the door. In hundreds of different ways the inventive genius of the people had subserved their public and private welfare. The inventions by quickening and diversifying the production of manufactured articles, had vastly increased the number of factories and mills, and in doing so had widened the field of employment. No class benefited more by this than the workingmen, not only in the improvement in their clothing and food and the advance of their wages, but also in the shorter hours of labor which it finally brought about.



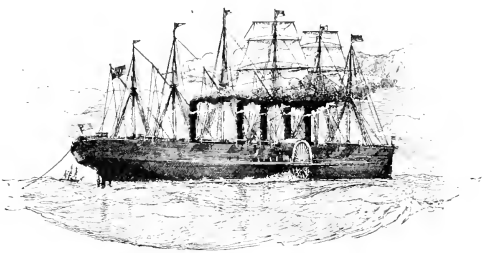
First Howe Sewing Machine

430. Three Great Inventions. There were three inventions of this period that were especially useful to mankind, — the sewing machine, the harvester, and the telegraph. We owe the sewing machine chiefly to the genius and persistency of Elias Howe. In reducing the cost of clothing it has enlarged the means of livelihood and advanced the general wealth. The harvester was invented by Cyrus McCormick. By economizing labor the harvester has increased the quantity of wheat

raised, and thus lowered the cost of bread. The telegraph was first worked successfully in 1844 by Samuel Finley B. Morse. After a long and patient struggle with poverty and every sort of discouragement, he secured from Congress an appropriation with which to build a line between Washington and Baltimore. Hitherto the method of sending messages when great rapidity was desired had been by signaling them across the country from post to post, letter by letter. By 1856 the electric telegraph had come into general use in all the larger States.

Instrument for sending Telegrams

431. The Atlantic Cable. Matthew F. Maury, the chief of the United States Observatory at Washington, in the course of his investigations of the ocean currents, discovered that a high plateau formed the floor of the sea between Newfoundland and Ireland. Taking advantage of this fact, Cyrus W. Field, of New York, succeeded in raising a large fund for laying a submarine cable between Valencia Bay, in Ireland, and Trinity Bay, in Newfoundland. The first cable laid in 1858 was only partially successful as it worked only three weeks. It was not until 1866 that the cable was put in successful operation.



Laying the Atlantic Cable

432. International Navigation. Matthew F. Maury, who was sprung from a Huguenot family of Virginia, had succeeded in making a remarkable series of charts of the oceanic winds and currents, which so improved sailing directions that a vast sum

of money was annually saved to the maritime nations of the world, while the loss of life was greatly lessened. By 1837 steamships had begun to ply between Liverpool and New York, and two years later the Cunard Line was founded. This was followed in 1850 by the Collins Line. Thenceforth the rivalry between the two companies — one British, the other American — became so intense that the time of the voyage between England and the United States was reduced to eleven days and eight hours.

433. Public Schools. With the growth of wealth and population there was seen everywhere an improvement in the methods of education. This was especially notable in the public school system of the free States. By the terms of the ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory, a certain proportion of the land in every new township laid off was devoted to the advance of public education. This proportion was doubled in Oregon when that region was organized as a Territory, and after this each new State admitted reserved the same area of land for the support of the public schools.

434. American Writers. During the first two periods under the Constitution (1789–1829 and 1829–1861) there appeared the most illustrious writers whom the United States has produced. Washington Irving, William Hickling Prescott, and James Fenimore Cooper belong more distinctly to the first period. So does William Cullen Bryant, if we consider only the date of his finest poem, "Thanatopsis" (1817). The greatest names in the literary history of the second period are those of the poets, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, John Greenleaf Whittier, and Edgar Allan Poe; of the poet essayists, Ralph Waldo Emerson, James Russell Lowell, and Oliver Wendell Holmes; of the novelists, Nathaniel Hawthorne and William Gilmore Simms; and of the historians, George Bancroft, John Lothrop Motley, and Francis Parkman.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD VI

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION — DIVISION.

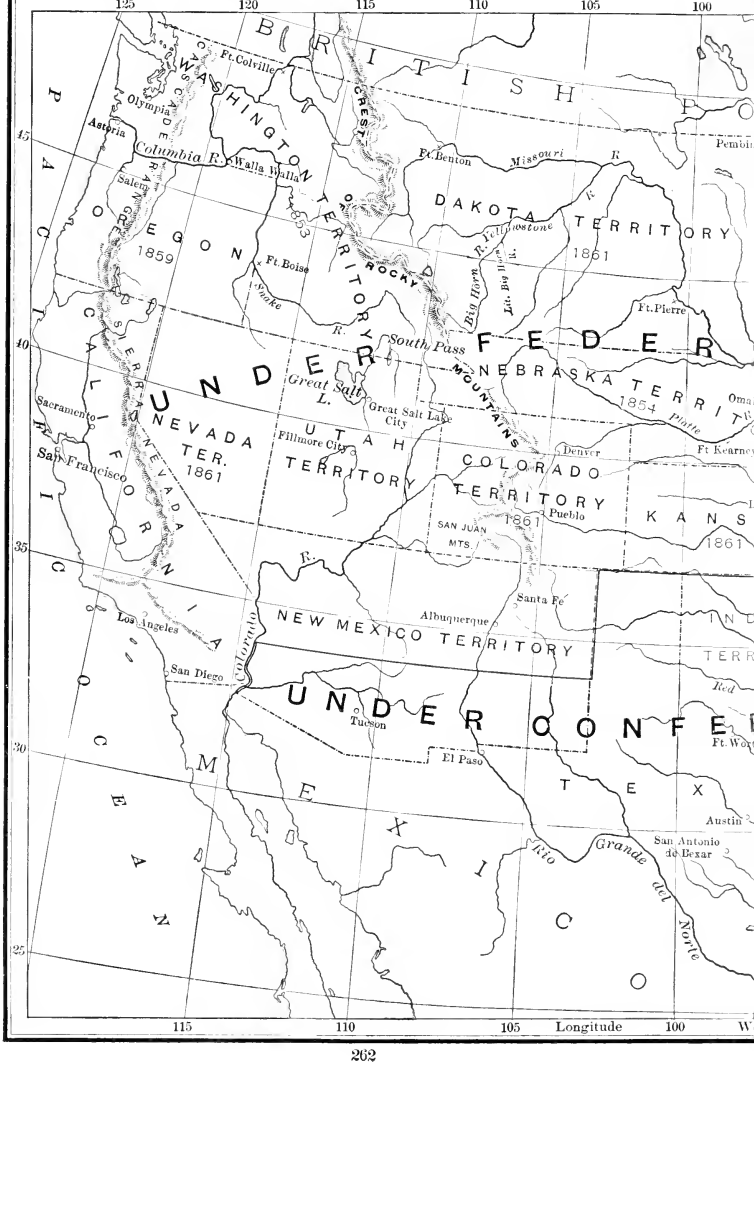
- I. Jackson's Administration, 1829-1837.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Rotation in Office.
    2. U. S. Bank Controversy.
    3. S. C. passes Provisional Nullification Ordinance.
    4. Tariff Act modified.
    5. Slavery Agitation renewed.
    6. Turner Slave Insurrection.
    7. Industrial and Intellectual Activity.
  - 2. Military Affairs.
    1. Black Hawk War.
    2. Seminole War.
    3. Reprisals on French advised.
  - 3. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Independence of Texas recognized.
- II. Van Buren's Admin., 1837-1841.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Financial Panic.
    2. Growth of Abolition Societies.
    3. The Spread of Mormonism.
- III. Harrison and Tyler's Administration, 1841-1845.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Death of Harrison in Office.
    2. Tyler vetoes the Whig Measures.
    3. Dorr's Rebellion.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Settlement of Northeastern Boundary Line.
    2. Passage of Joint Resolution for annexation of Texas to U. S.
- IV. Polk's Administration, 1845-1849.
  - 1. Military Affairs.
    1. Taylor marches to Rio Grande.
    2. Battle of Palo Alto.
    3. Battle of Resaca de la Palma.
    4. Kearny captures Santa Fé.
    5. Conquest of California.
    6. Capture of Monterey.
    7. Battle of Buena Vista.
    8. Siege of Vera Cruz.
    9. Battle of Cerro Gordo.
    10. Contreras and Churubusco.
    11. Battle of Molino del Rey.
    12. Assault on Chapultepec.
    13. City of Mexico surrenders.
    14. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo.
  - 2. Domestic Affairs.
    1. House passes Wilmot Proviso.
    2. Gold discovered in California.
- V. Taylor and Fillmore's Administration, 1849-1853.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Disputes over Slavery.
    2. Compromise of 1850 — Omnibus Bill.
    3. Rise of New Leaders.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.
    2. Perry's Expedition to Japan.
- VI. Pierce's Administration, 1853-1857.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. "Uncle Tom's Cabin."
    2. Squatter Sovereignty.
    3. Struggle for Kansas.
    4. Rise of Know-nothing Party.
- VII. Buchanan's Administration, 1857-1861.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Dred Scott Decision.
    2. John Brown's Raid.
    3. Lecompton Constitution.
    4. Division in Democratic Party.
    5. Triumph of Republican Party.
    6. South Carolina secedes.
    7. Other Southern States secede.
    8. Confederate Congress meets at Montgomery, Ala.
    9. Confed. Constitution adopted.
    10. Davis chosen Confed. President.
    11. Anderson moves into Fort Sumter.
    12. *Star of the West* fired on.
- VIII. New States admitted, 1829-1861.
  - 1. Free
    1. Michigan.
    2. Iowa.
    3. Wisconsin.
    4. California.
    5. Minnesota.
    6. Oregon.
    7. Kansas.
  - 2. Slave
    1. Arkansas.
    2. Florida.
    3. Texas.

PERIOD VII. UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—DISUNION

Lincoln's Administration, 1861–1865.[1] The War of Secession, Events of 1861

435. Fall of Fort Sumter. *The South's Warning.* Shortly after the delivery of Lincoln's inaugural address, in which he had declared that the Federal government would "hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government," a squadron of ships sailed from New York for Charleston, with orders to strengthen the garrison of Fort Sumter, at the cannon's mouth, if necessary. The Confederate

[1] Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky in 1809, in the humblest and plainest walk of life. His father was entirely illiterate, and the son had the advantage of one year's schooling only. Removing with his parents to Indiana, and afterward to Illinois, he aided in splitting the rails for the fencing of the new farm. He was in turn a boatman, clerk, storekeeper, postmaster, and surveyor. By studying borrowed law books, which he pored over at night, he prepared himself for the bar, and was admitted in 1836. He was soon sent to the State Legislature, and in 1846 was elected to Congress, but served only a single term. He came into national prominence in 1858, during his canvass of the State of Illinois for the senatorship. In the course of his memorable debate with Douglas, Lincoln took strong ground against the further extension of slavery. His nomination to the presidency was unexpected, and his election was looked on with distrust by many persons even of his own party. In character Lincoln was honest and sincere; in disposition, homely, simple, and kind; in intellect, shrewd and penetrating. He had in his nature a singular mixture of melancholy and humor which gave uniqueness to his individuality. With a patience that was inexhaustible, a sagacity not often at fault, and a firm reliance upon the sympathy and support of what he called the "plain people," he was able to pass with great distinction through a crisis that would have taxed to the utmost the powers of Jackson or Washington.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BRITISH
Ft. Colville
Olympia
Astoria
Columbia R.
Walla Walla
Salem
OREGON
1859
WASHINGTON TERRITORY
1853
Ft. Benton
Missouri R.
DAKOTA TERRITORY
1861
Yellowstone R.
Big Horn R.
Little Big Horn R.
Ft. Boise
Brooke
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
Ft. Pierre
South Pass
UNDER FEDER
NEBRASKA TERRIT
1854
Platte
Great Salt L.
Great Salt Lake City
Fillmore City
NEVADA TER.
1861
UTAH TERRITORY
Denver
COLORADO TERRITORY
1861
Pueblo
SAN JUAN MTS.
Ft Kearney
Sacramento R.
San Francisco
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado R.
Albuquerque
Santa Fé
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Red R.
Tucson
El Paso
UNDER CONFE
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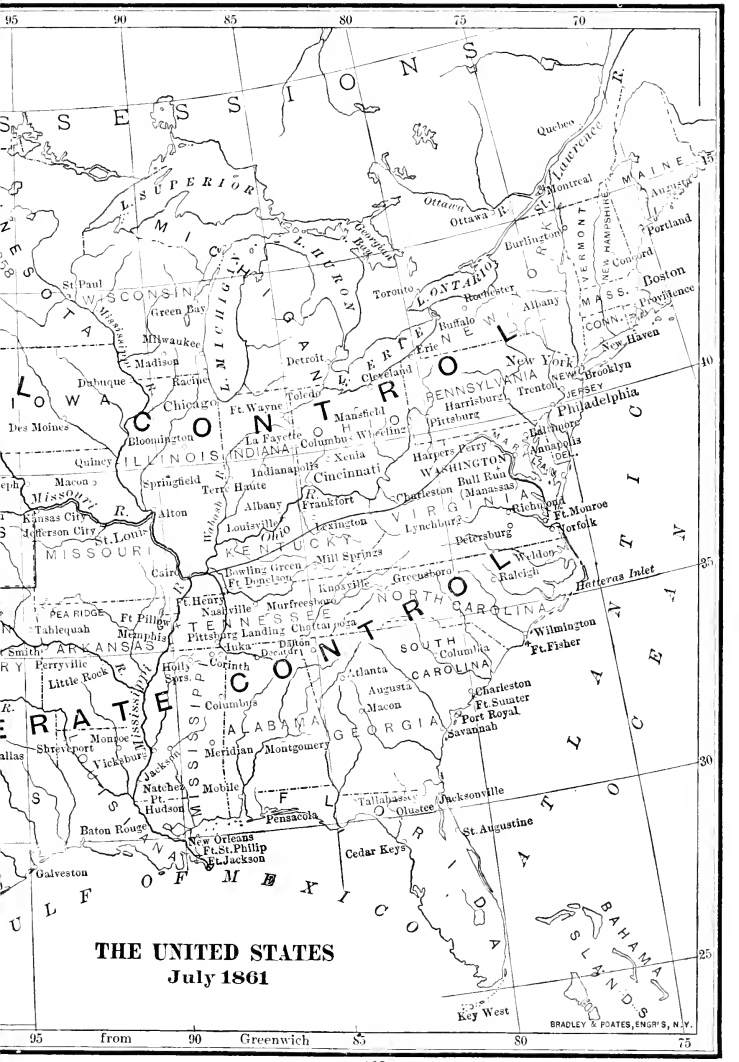
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SECESSIONS
CONTROL
RATE CONTROL
L. SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
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L. ONTARIO
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Montreal
Ottawa
Ottawa R.
Georgian Bay
Toronto
Rochester
Albany
Burlington
Portland
Augusta
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Concord
Boston
Providence
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CONN.
New Haven
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Brooklyn
NEW JERSEY
Trenton
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Annapolis
DEL.
Harrisburg
Pittsburg
PENNSYLVANIA
Buffalo
Erie
Cleveland
Detroit
Toledo
Mansfield
Wheeling
Columbus
Xenia
Cincinnati
Harpers Ferry
WASHINGTON
Bull Run
Manassas
Charleston
Richmond
Ft. Monroe
Norfolk
Petersburg
Weldon
Raleigh
Hatteras Inlet
Greensboro
Knoxville
Lynchburg
VIRGINIA
Lexington
Frankfort
Louisville
Ohio
Mill Springs
KENTUCKY
Bowling Green
Ft Donelson
Nashville
Murfreesboro
Ft. Henry
Cairo
Jefferson City
St. Louis
MISSOURI
Kansas City
Missouri R.
Alton
Springfield
Terre Haute
Albany
Indianapolis
INDIANA
La Fayette
Fort Wayne
Chicago
Milwaukee
Green Bay
Madison
Racine
Dubuque
Des Moines
IOWA
Quincy
Bloomington
ILLINOIS
Macon
Wabash R.
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Pittsburg Landing
Chattanooga
Memphis
Ft Pillow
PEA RIDGE
Tahlequah
ARKANSAS
Little Rock
Perryville
Holly Springs
Corinth
Iuka
Decatur
Dalton
Atlanta
Augusta
Columbia
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
Ft. Fisher
Charleston
Ft. Sumter
Port Royal
Savannah
Macon
Columbus
Meridian
Montgomery
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
Vicksburg
Jackson
Shreveport
Monroe
Natchez
Mobile
Pt. Hudson
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Ft. St. Philip
Ft. Jackson
Galveston
Pensacola
Tallahassee
Olustee
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Cedar Keys
FLORIDA
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Key West
THE UNITED STATES
July 1861
BRADLEY & POATES, ENGR'S, N.Y.
95
from
90
Greenwich
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80
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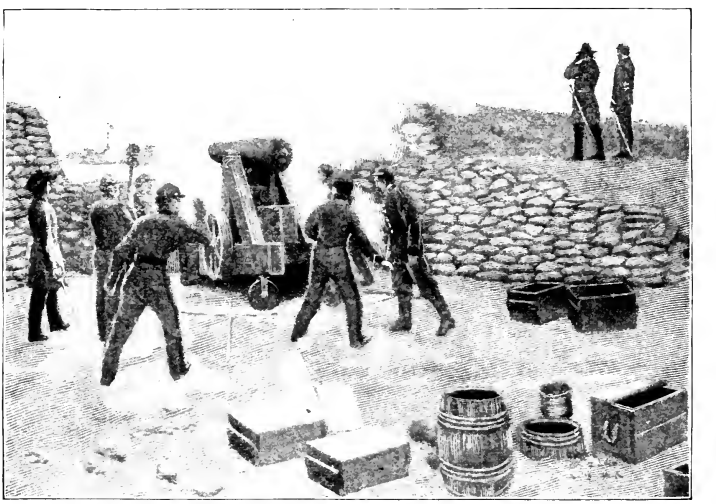
commissioners, who were still in Washington, on hearing of the destination of the fleet, wrote Seward, the Secretary of State in Lincoln's Cabinet, that any attempt to reënforce Fort

Abraham Lincoln

Sumter would be accepted by the Confederate government as a declaration of war.

436. *General Beauregard* (bō're gard) was stationed at Charleston with 6000 men. When Major Anderson refused to evacuate Fort Sumter, Beauregard, following his instruc-

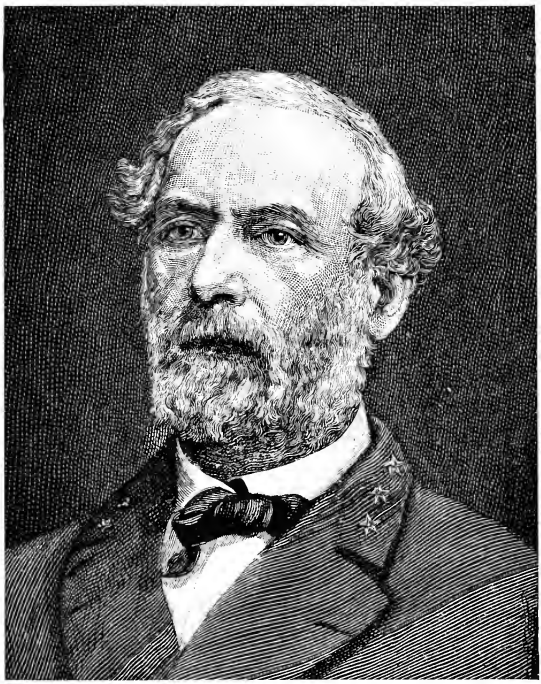
tions, opened fire on the fort, on the morning of April 12, and for thirty-four hours the bombardment was kept up. At the end of that time the garrison surrendered. Not a single person had been killed, though the fort had been battered almost to pieces. In the meanwhile the Federal fleet hove in sight in the offing. The first shot had been fired by the South, but only after a warning that an effort to reënforce Sumter would be taken as a declaration of war.



Bombardment of Fort Sumter

437. Preparations for Hostilities. *The First Bloodshed.* The fall of Fort Sumter caused overwhelming excitement in the North as well as in the South. On April 15 Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for 75,000 militia. This was the signal to the Southern States which had not yet left the Union — Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee — to pass ordinances of secession. Maryland, the majority of whose citizens were in sympathy with the new Confederacy,

was prevented from going out by the arrest and imprisonment of the leading members of its legislature. Large bodies of Federal troops were soon on their way to Washington. Portions of a Massachusetts and a Pennsylvania regiment, in passing through Baltimore, April 19, were stoned by an angry con-



Robert E. Lee

course of citizens. Several men were killed and many were injured. This was the first bloodshed of the war.

438. *Resignations of Southern Officers.* As each State passed an ordinance of secession, most of its sons who were in the army and navy of the United States resigned their com-

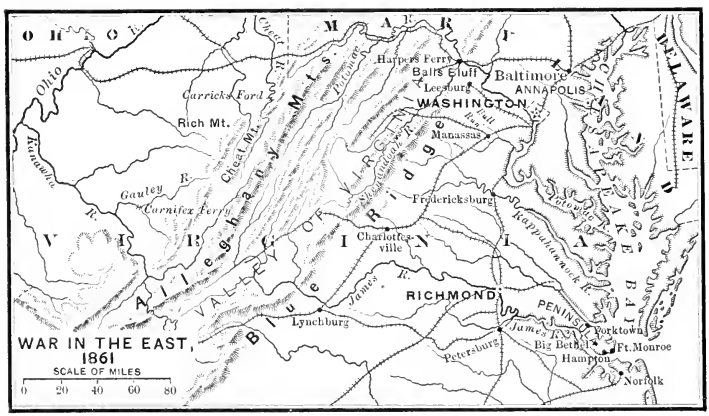
missions. Among the most prominent of the military officers thus to act were Albert Sidney Johnston, a native of Kentucky, but now of Texas, Joseph E. Johnston, and Robert E. Lee of Virginia (§§ 396, 413). Lee, who was a son of "Light Horse Harry" Lee of the Revolution, had been offered the command of the Federal armies in the now impending conflict.[1] These noble-minded men thought that their first allegiance was to their own States, and with a solemn sense of filial obligation they obeyed the call, prepared to risk life, property, everything except honor, in defense of their native soil.

439. Relative Strength of the Antagonists. The North began the contest not only with an enormous disproportion of population in her favor, but also with the support of the regular army and navy organized for immediate service. The Northern States contained the greater number of the public arsenals and dockyards. They possessed factories in which all kinds of military supplies could be produced at once. As a recognized nationality, these States also had access to the markets of the world in which to purchase such supplies. The South had followed agriculture, and given no attention to any branch of manufactures. It was so entirely lacking in ships that by the end of 1861 Lincoln had put the whole Southern seacoast in a state of thorough blockade. The cotton of the South could not be exported for the purchase of arms abroad, nor stores imported, except at imminent risk of capture. The Confederacy was forced to erect its own iron works and mills in which to make the military supplies it needed. The one great advantage which the Southern people possessed was that they were fighting directly for their homes and firesides, a fact

[1] Colonel Lee wrote, "With all my devotion to the Union and the feeling of loyalty and duty as an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home."

that always nerves the arm and strengthens the soul to an extraordinary degree of resistance.

440. Big Bethel. According to the plan of campaign laid down by the Federal government, General Patterson was to advance up the Valley of Virginia; General Butler was to attack the Peninsula; General McClellan, western Virginia. General Butler made the first movement, and on June 10, 1861, at Big Bethel, on the road between Yorktown and Hampton, his lieutenant, General Pierce, met a severe check at the



hands of General Magruder. The only Confederate soldier who fell was Henry Wyatt, a North Carolinian, the first soldier to perish in battle in the War of Secession.

441. The operations in western Virginia were unfavorable to the Confederate army. The country was inaccessible, and the population hostile to the Confederate cause. Two battles were fought, one at Rich Mountain, July 11; the other at Carricks Ford, July 14. Not even the skill of General Robert E. Lee, who was sent in the autumn to reorganize the disheartened troops of the Confederacy, was able to wrest West Virginia

from the Federal forces. Lee himself was repulsed at Cheat Mountain, and Floyd at Carnifex Ferry. The Confederate troops were soon withdrawn.

442. Battle of Manassas or Bull Run. *A great Federal army* had been slowly collecting at Washington. Marching into Virginia, 35,000 strong, under General McDowell, with the battle cry, "On to Richmond," it struck the outposts of the

Jackson at Bull Run

Confederate army, under Beauregard, at Bull Run, not far from Manassas. General Johnston, who had been in the Valley of Virginia, arrived on the ground, and took command. With the troops he brought along with him, the Confederates now numbered about 32,000 men. A Federal force rapidly marching up Bull Run, crossed the stream, and fiercely attacked (July 21) the Confederates in the flank and in the rear.

who falling back at first before the fast increasing host of their opponents, at last halted stubbornly, and repelled assault after assault on their position.[1]

443. *Defeat of the Federals.* As the Federal troops were getting ready for a fifth assault, a force of Confederates, under Early and Kirby Smith, appeared on the field, and at once poured a cross-fire into the advancing foe. Beauregard took advantage of this moment to press forward. In falling back, the Federals exposed their right flank. Charging on this flank as well as in front, the Confederates drove the Federals back in great confusion. The retreat soon became a rout, the rout a panic. The headlong flight did not stop until the Long Bridge at Washington was reached. The loss in killed and missing was about 3000 Federals and 2000 Confederates. The Confederates captured a great quantity of artillery and military stores of all kinds.

444. Determination of the North. The Confederates made no effort to follow up this success. Beyond winning in the battle of Balls Bluff, near Leesburg, October 21, in which only detachments of the two armies were engaged, nothing further was accomplished by them in the East during the year. These Confederate victories only strengthened the determination of the Northern people to conquer in the end. Steps were at once taken by the Federal Congress to increase the army to 500,000, and to build ironclads and purchase munitions of all kinds. General McClellan was appointed commander in chief

[1] As the Confederates were falling back, General Thomas J. Jackson moved forward to support General Bee. While Jackson was quietly awaiting the approach of the Federals, General Bee rode up to him. "General," he cried out, "they are beating us back." "We will not be beaten back" was the calm reply. "We will give them the bayonet." Encouraged by the manner as well as by the words of Jackson, Bee returned at a gallop to his troops. "Look," he exclaimed, "there stands Jackson like a stone wall. Rally on the Virginians." He soon fell mortally wounded.

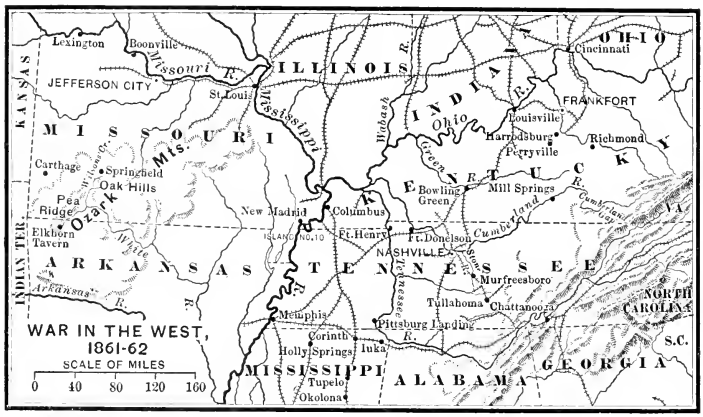
in place of General Scott, who was retired on account of old age.

445. The Confederate Congress showed equal energy in organizing the Confederate resources. It ordered a levy of 400,000 troops, issued $200,000,000 in bonds and treasury notes for the carrying on of the war, and gave letters of marque to a number of armed vessels. The *Sumter* and *Nashville* soon got to sea in spite of the Federal blockade. The little squadron of Commodore Tattnall, however, found it impossible to defend Port Royal and the forts on Hatteras Inlet from the attacks of the Federal fleets and land forces in August.

446. Events in the West. *Campaign in Missouri.* Events of great importance had been taking place in the West. Having ground for thinking that Missouri would in the end join the Confederacy, Captain Lyon, the Federal officer in command at St. Louis, boldly strengthened the garrison in the arsenal there, took as prisoners a body of State militia stationed at Camp Jackson, and defeated the Confederates at Boonville. A few weeks later he was himself defeated and killed at Oak Hills or Wilsons Creek (August 10). General Sigel (se'gel) had been beaten at Carthage on July 5. Frémont soon concentrated a large body of Federal troops in the State. This army gradually pressed its opponents back to Springfield. Halleck took charge and

Sterling Price

forced the Confederates as far south as Arkansas, but not until General Sterling Price had won a decisive victory at Lexington.



447. *Military Line in Kentucky.* Kentucky had tried to maintain an attitude of armed neutrality, but this proved a failure. Federal detachments soon took possession of the northern part of the State, while the Confederates under General Albert Sidney Johnston established a military line from border to border, further south. The principal intrenched points on this line were Columbus, Bowling Green, and Cumberland Gap. Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, in Tennessee, were also strongly fortified.

Albert Sidney Johnston

448. Mason and Slidell. In order to secure the recognition of the Confederate States abroad, Davis sent James M. Mason to England, and John Slidell to France. Having run the block-

ade, they went on board the English steamer *Trent*. On November 8, the vessel was stopped on the high seas by the Federal Captain Wilkes, of the *San Jacinto*, the Confederate commissioners were taken off, and carried to the United States, and there imprisoned. As soon as news of the forcible removal of Mason and Slidell reached England, that country demanded their surrender, which was complied with, as the Federal government had too much discretion to involve itself in war with Great Britain at that critical time.

The War in the West, 1862

449. Mill Springs and Fort Henry. On January 19 General George H. Thomas[1] badly defeated the Confederate army operating, under General Zollicoffer, in eastern Tennessee. This was the battle of Mill Springs, and the victory greatly raised the hopes of the Northern people. It was decided to break through the fortified line which General Albert Sidney Johnston had drawn across Kentucky (§ 447) and invade the country southward. Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, was the first object of attack. A fleet of gunboats, under Flag Officer Foote, making its way up the stream,

George H. Thomas

[1] General Thomas, who is thought by many military critics to have been the ablest soldier engaged on the Federal side, was a Virginian by birth. Farragut, the most distinguished Federal naval officer, was a native of Tennessee.

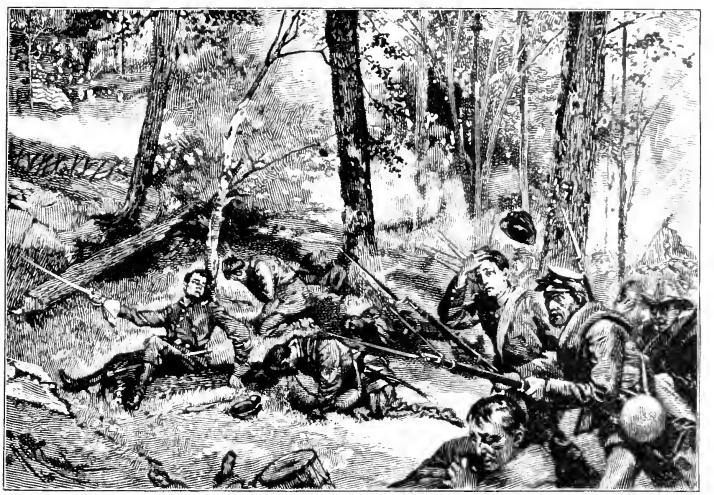
soon silenced the fort's cannon (February 6). General Tilghman, seeing that further resistance was useless, surrendered his force, consisting of less than one hundred men. The Confederate troops stationed in the camp near by retreated to Fort Donelson before General Grant, who designed to make an assault on the fort on the land side, could come up.

450. Fort Donelson, situated on the Cumberland River, defended the water approaches to Nashville, where a vast quantity of military stores had been collected. It was strongly fortified by breastworks and abatis of forest trees. The Confederate troops stationed here were under the command of Generals Floyd, Buckner, and Pillow. By February 14 the fort was completely invested on the land side by General Grant, and on the side of the river by the Federal gunboats. In spite of their success in repelling the assaults of the Federal army on the breastworks and resisting the bombardment of the fleet, the Confederate leaders, thinking their position untenable, decided to cut their way through the Federal forces and retreat to Nashville. At first the attempt to break through promised to be successful, but reënforcements coming up, the Federals drove the Confederates back into the fort. On February 16 the Confederate troops, numbering from 10,000 to 14,000, were compelled to surrender.[1] In a few days Nashville was evacuated, and General A. S. Johnston was forced to abandon his line in Kentucky and fall back to Corinth in Mississippi.

451. Battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing. *Death of A. S. Johnston.* Here Johnston soon formed an army of 40,000 men, and though disappointed in receiving reënforcements from General Van Dorn, who on March 7 had been severely

[1] Buckner sent a flag of truce to Grant and requested him to name the conditions of submission. "Unconditional surrender," was the reply, and these terms had to be accepted.

checked at Pea Ridge (Elkhorn Tavern) in Arkansas, in the effort to repel the Federal invasion of that State, he determined to go forward and attack General Grant at Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River, before General Buell could join him. Grant alone had about 37,000 men, which Buell's forces would have swelled to 70,000. On the morning of April 6 Johnston came upon the Federal outposts near



Battle of Shiloh

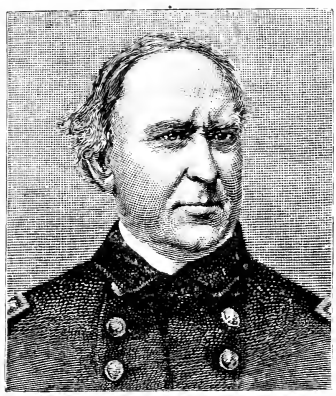
Shiloh Church, and with the suddenness and irresistible weight of an avalanche drove the whole Federal army back to the river, where it was cooped up in an area of ground not exceeding four hundred acres. At this moment Johnston was struck in the leg by a ball and soon bled to death.

452. *General Beauregard*, the next in command, the hour being late and the Confederate advance having been checked by the fire from the Federal gunboats, ordered that further attack should cease until the next morning. Buell, however, came up

in the night and the Federal troops, half of whom were fresh and who outnumbered the Confederates two to one, gradually took possession of the ground from which they had been driven the day before. Beauregard fell back to Tupelo, in Mississippi. The losses of both sides together amounted to 25,000 men.

Gustave T. Beauregard

453. Island No. 10. The free navigation of the upper Mississippi River by the Federal gunboats was blocked by the Confederate fortifications on Island No. 10.[1] During three weeks Flag Officer Foote bombarded these works, but it was not until General Pope threatened them in the rear that the garrison, now hemmed in on all sides, yielded (April 7). The navigation of the lower Mississippi was in the same month thrown open by the capture of New Orleans (map, p. 263). The approaches to that city by water were guarded by Forts Jackson and St. Philip. Six heavy chains, supported on hulks, had been stretched across the stream to obstruct the passage of ships, and they were guarded by a Confederate floating battery, ram, and thirteen small gunboats.



David G. Farragut

[1] The islands in the Mississippi River are numbered in order from the mouth of the Ohio River to New Orleans.

454. New Orleans. Farragut, with a fleet of over forty vessels, after vainly hurling his shells against the walls of the forts, crashed through the chains and destroying or disabling the little Confederate squadron, made his way to New Orleans (April 25). Forts Jackson and St. Philip were a few days later compelled to surrender by a simultaneous attack on land and water. An army under General Butler promptly took possession of the city. It was not long before Farragut captured Natchez and Bat'on Rouge (roozh), and successfully running by the batteries at Vicksburg, joined the Federal fleet operating in the upper Mississippi.

455. Bragg in Kentucky and Tennessee. *Northward March.* By June Kentucky and Missouri had both fallen into the hands of the Federals; the greater part of Tennessee had been abandoned; New Orleans, Nashville, and Memphis had been captured. General Beauregard was now superseded by General Braxton Bragg, an officer who had won distinction in the Mexican War (§ 395). Extraordinary efforts were made to increase the strength and efficiency of the western army. Bragg having sent Forrest into Tennessee, and Morgan into Kentucky on raids, concentrated a strong force at Chattanooga near where Generals Buell and Thomas were encamped. Dispatching strong reënforcements to General Kirby Smith, which enabled the latter to win a brilliant victory near Richmond, Kentucky, and threaten Cincinnati, Bragg turned northwards with the

Braxton Bragg

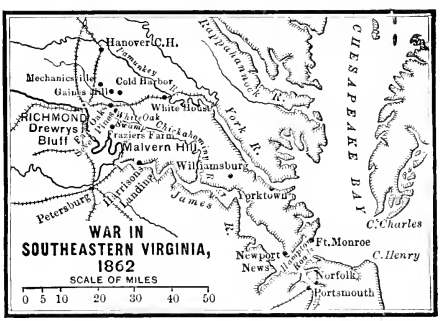
intention of capturing Louisville, but while he halted by the way, Buell was pressing forward and succeeded in entering that city first.

456. *Perryville.* The Federal force was so formidable in numbers that Bragg decided to retreat southward, with the vast quantity of stores he had collected. His position was rendered less secure by the drawn battle at Iuka, Mississippi, on September 19, and by the severe repulse of Van Dorn and Price in the attack on the fortifications of Corinth in the same State October 4. Buell followed Bragg, and at Perryville (October 8) fell in full force on one part of the Confederate army, Polk's corps, which after a brave resistance retreated in the night to Harrodsburg, the station of the main army. From this point Bragg retired slowly into eastern Tennessee. Buell was now superseded by Rosecrans, who marched forward against the Confederates.

457. *Murfreesboro.* On December 31 a great battle began at Murfreesboro on Stone River. By eleven o'clock the Federal right wing was driven from the field. The Federal center, commanded by Thomas and posted on a rocky elevation the slope of which was covered with thickets, was forced back, after a stubborn resistance. In vain, however, the Confederates sought to dislodge the Federal left. In the night it fell back, and the whole Federal army, now reënforced, threw up a new line of defense. On January 2 there was a brush between sections of the two opposing forces, but without important results. A heavy rain having fallen on the 3d, Bragg became apprehensive lest the rise in the waters of Stone River should cut him off from his supplies, and under cover of night withdrew from the battlefield which had been occupied at all points by the Confederates. The moral effect of a victory, however, was on the side of the Federals, as the Confederate troops were again in retreat.

The War in the East, 1862

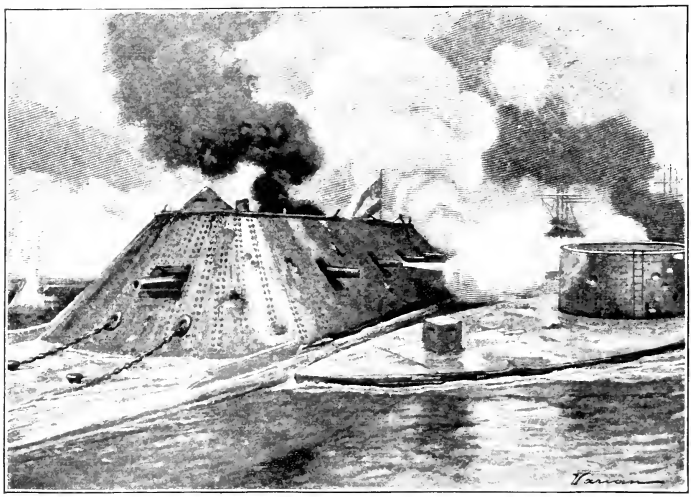
458. The "Virginia" and the "Monitor."[1] *Destruction of Federal Ships.* On April 20, 1861, the Federal authorities had abandoned the Norfolk Navy Yard, and in doing so, had scuttled the forty-gun frigate *Merrimac* lying there. The Confederates having raised her, converted her into an ironclad, and rechristened her the *Virginia*. On March 8, 1862, under the command of Commodore Buchanan, she made her way to Newport News, where the Federal ships the *Congress* and *Cumberland* were anchored under the protection of the shore batteries. Having rammed the *Cumberland* and set the *Congress* on fire, the *Virginia* withdrew for the night to Norfolk.



459. *A Drawn Battle.* The next morning she moved down the Roads, with the intention of destroying the *Minnesota* which had run aground. Awaiting her was a singular-looking craft, lying low, like a box, in the water, with a revolving turret. This was the *Monitor* which Ericsson had built in a hundred

[1] As the events of the battle between the *Virginia* and the *Monitor* have been much disputed, it is proper to say that the details in the above account were obtained from a monograph — one of the most valuable relating to the war — written by Virginius Newton, Esq., of Richmond, Virginia, an officer of the Confederate navy who took part in the fight (March 8) between the *Virginia* and the wooden vessels, and was a close and attentive witness of the fight between the *Virginia* and *Monitor* on the following day (March 9). The monograph is also based upon a careful examination of all the printed authorities.

days to grapple with the *Virginia*. It was commanded by Lieutenant Worden. The two guns it carried were much larger than those of the Confederate ram. The two vessels soon closed in a deadly grapple. The *Monitor* twice withdrew, once for a period of nearly an hour. At last she drew off into shallow water where the *Virginia* could not follow.



The "Virginia" and the "Monitor"

On the 11th, the *Virginia* moved down to Fort Monroe, and in vain offered the *Monitor* and other Federal war vessels stationed there battle in deep water.

460. *The Virginia revolutionized* the naval architecture of the world. All the maritime nations began at once to construct men-of-war modeled on the same general principle. In the attempt to remove the *Virginia* to Richmond when the Confederates evacuated Norfolk, she ran aground and had to be blown up. For a time she had caused widespread alarm in the North, for it was expected that she would not only break

up the Federal blockade of the Southern coasts, but also bombard Washington and Philadelphia, New York and Boston, and thus destroy millions in property and thousands of lives.

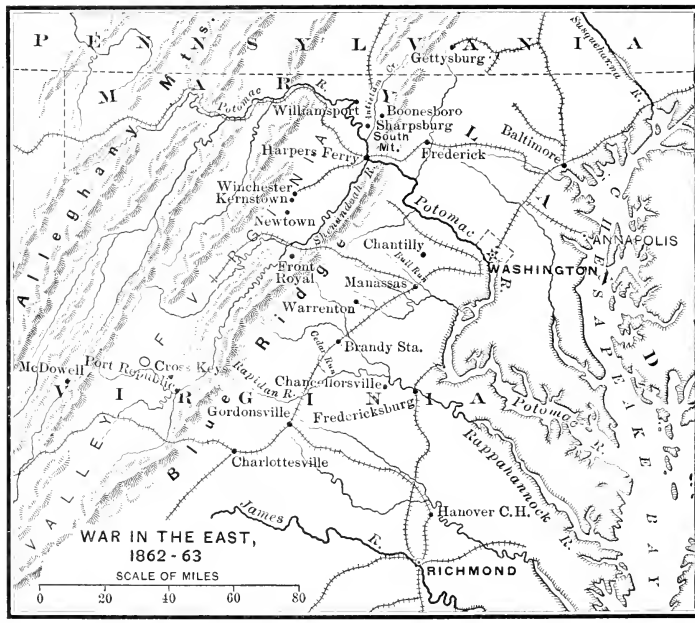
461. McClellan's Advance up the Peninsula. *Yorktown.* Early in April General McClellan, who had determined to attack Richmond by way of the Peninsula between the York and the James rivers, landed at Fort Monroe with about 90,000 men. General Magruder had now taken position at Yorktown. McClellan marched thither, but when, after a month's delay, he made his dispositions to carry the place by storm, the Confederates quietly evacuated it at night and moved slowly off in the direction of Richmond.

462. *Seven Pines or Fair Oaks.* McClellan followed. At Williamsburg his advance guard met with a severe check on May 5, but by the end of the month the Federal army, 135,000 strong, was posted on both banks of the swampy Chickahominy. Fearing lest his communications with McDowell, who was stationed at Fredericksburg (map, p. 282) for the protection of Washington, should be cut off, McClellan sent Fitz-John Porter forward to Hanover Courthouse. The spring rains having flooded the Chickahominy, Johnston, on May 31, at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, hurled his troops against Keyes and Heintzelman on the southern side of the stream, and but for their receiving timely assistance from Sumner, would have destroyed their two corps.

Joseph E. Johnston

Johnston being wounded, General Robert E. Lee now took direct command.

463. Jackson's Valley Campaign. *Effect on McClellan's Position.* The failure of the Federal fleet to pass the batteries at Drewrys Bluff (map, p. 279) prevented any naval attack on Richmond. On the other hand, the success of Gen-



eral Jackson's campaign in the Valley of Virginia compelled McClellan to abandon all hope of aid from McDowell's corps. Jackson had been sent to the Valley in order to defend it from invasion, and also to threaten Washington. He succeeded in engaging the attention of a large body of Federal troops who otherwise would have been free to coöperate with McClellan.

464. *Generals Banks and Shields* were now in command of the Federal forces in the Valley. Jackson, with half the

number of his opponents, attacked the Federals at Kernstown on March 23, but was compelled to draw off as night came on. Posting himself in the Blue Ridge, where his army was soon increased to 15,000 men, he watched, with the keen eye of an eagle, the three Federal armies stationed in the Valley. Swooping down from his eyrie, he struck Milroy a telling blow at McDowell, and, doubling upon his tracks, defeated Banks at Front Royal (May 23) and at Newtown (May 24), and drove him across the Potomac. Passing between Shields and Frémont, who were moving on opposite sides of the Shenando'ah, Jackson, on June 8, overthrew Frémont at Cross Keys, and crossing the river at Port Republic (June 9), fell on Shields and forced him to retreat headlong down the Valley.

465. *General Results.* In a period of less than fifty days Jackson's "foot cavalry" had passed over four hundred miles of ground. With an army hardly exceeding 15,000 men he had defeated four separate armies, in the aggregate three times the size of his own; had captured 35,000 prisoners; and, finally, had made it unsafe for McDowell to join McClellan. Seventeen days after the battle of Port Republic, Jackson, by a rapid and secret march, had arrived on the Chickahominy.

466. Battles on the Chickahominy. *Gaines Mill and Cold Harbor.* Before the arrival of Jackson, General Stuart, at the head of 1200 cavalrymen, in order to procure information for General Lee, had gone on a raid entirely around the Federal army.[1] Repelling a Confederate assault at Mechanicsville (map, p. 279) on June 26, McClellan fell back to Gaines Mill and Cold Harbor. Here, on the 27th, a section of the Fed-

[1] Lieutenant (afterward Colonel) William T. Robins was in command of the advance guard. One sentence from General Stuart's report gives a vivid idea of the quickness of its movements: "On, on dashed Robins, here skirting a field, there leaping a fence or a ditch, and clearing the woods."

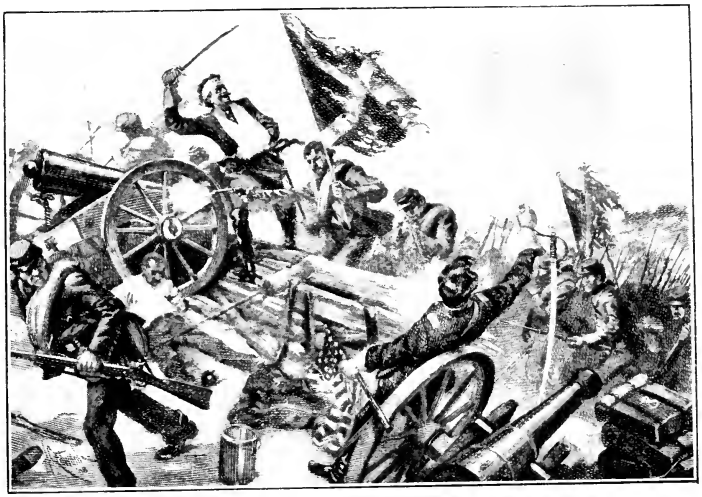
eral army was attacked by nearly all the Confederate forces, and was only saved from total destruction, in attempting to cross the Chickahominy, by the falling of darkness. McClellan was now cut off from the base of his supplies at the White House on the Pamunkey, and determined to retreat to the James River under cover of his gunboats.

James E. B. Stuart

467. *Malvern Hill.* The Confederates followed close in the track of the retreating army. Indecisive battles were fought at White Oak Swamp and at Fraziers Farm. By July 1 the Federals had taken a strongly fortified position at Malvern Hill, overlooking James River, their flanks protected by gunboats. As the Confederates advanced, the entire hill seemed to blaze with a sheet of solid flame. Repeated onsets were made, but the Federal troops held their ground. During the night, however, they retreated to Harrisons Landing. Lee, not deeming it wise to make a further attack, withdrew his soldiers to the vicinity of Richmond. The Confederate army lost, in killed, wounded, and captured, about 20,000 men; the Federal lost about 16,000 men. McClellan was ordered to withdraw his army to the Potomac, and Lincoln issued a call for 300,000 additional troops.

468. Lee's Advance Northward. *Second Battle of Manassas, or Bull Run.* General Pope (§ 453) was the next Federal commander to join battle with the Confederates. Issuing a series of rather boastful proclamations, he began his march

toward Gordonsville (map, p. 282), but at Manassas, on August 29, found himself confronted by Jackson's corps, which had, on August 9, defeated Banks at Cedar Run. Though surrounded by the Federals, Jackson held his position stubbornly until nightfall. Longstreet, arriving on the field the next morning, united his forces with Jackson's; the Federals were thrown



Seven Days' Battles

into confusion, and soon sought safety in a retreat, which only ended at Washington.[1]

469. *Harpers Ferry and Sharpsburg or Antietam.* Now that Virginia, from the James to the Potomac, was cleared of the Federals, General Lee determined to invade Maryland. Crossing into that State, he took position near Frederick (map, p. 282).

[1] In the hasty retreat of the Federal army after this battle, two of the ablest Federal officers were killed in an engagement at Chantilly — Generals Stevens and Kearny. The latter had only one arm, and yet, holding the reins of his horse in his teeth, while he brandished his sword with his remaining arm, he would lead in the most headlong charges on the battlefield.

Before the Federal forces, under General McClellan, could come up, he sent Jackson to seize Harpers Ferry. Having captured about 13,000 prisoners, seventy-three cannon, and 30,000 muskets (September 15), Jackson hurried back to the main body of the Confederate army, which, after an engagement at Boonesboro (South Mountain), was now stationed at Sharpsburg, near Antietam (an tē'tam) Creek. Here, on September 17, Lee, whose plans had been revealed to his opponent by the finding of a mislaid order, was attacked by the Federal forces, now more than double his own. After varying fortune and prodigies of valor on both sides, the armies held their positions during the night; and all the following day remained quiet. During the second night Lee, hearing that heavy Federal reënforcements were coming up, retreated across the Potomac and withdrew to Winchester.[1]

James Longstreet

470. Battle of Fredericksburg. The Federal army, now numbering 115,000 men, crossed into Virginia early in November, and camped near Warrenton. Here McClellan was superseded by General Burnside, who, a few days later, set his troops in motion toward Fredericksburg. The hills on the north bank of the Rappahannock, opposite that town, were soon thoroughly

[1] During the invasion of Maryland, the Confederate soldiers suffered almost as much as their Revolutionary fathers. Many were in rags; many without shoes to protect their feet from the stones; recalling to the minds of those who saw them the retreat of Washington's tattered army across New Jersey.

fortified by the Federals, while the Confederates took position on the hills on the southern bank. On December 13, 90,000 Federal soldiers crossed the river on pontoons, and advanced, under the cover of a fog, across the valley to the foot of the Confederate position. The Federal left wing was, after a momentary success, driven back by the Confederate right, and retreated across the plain to the protection of their guns.

Battle of Fredericksburg

The Federal right wing advanced, only to reel back in confusion before the terrible fire of the Confederate left. The Federal reserve now marched bravely forward, only to meet with the same fate. Darkness put an end to the battle. On the night of December 15 Burnside withdrew his troops to the north side of the river. Both armies soon went into winter quarters.

471. The "Alabama." The close of 1862 found the whole of the eastern seaboard of the Confederacy brought under a rigid

blockade. The efficiency of the Federal navy had now been vastly increased, and this was shown in the capture of the different forts along the coast. Every city immediately on the seaboard, except Charleston, Savannah, and Wilmington, was now in Federal hands. The Confederacy had practically no means of building a navy, but was able to purchase several cruisers abroad. The most celebrated was the *Alabama*, commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes, of Maryland. Her ravages extended from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. The *Florida*, also, though at first a merchantman, had under Captain Maffett been very successful in destroying Northern vessels.

Raphael Semmes

The War in the East and on the Coast, 1863

472. Emancipation Proclamation. On September 22, 1862, after General Lee had withdrawn his army from Maryland, Lincoln issued a proclamation, warning the people of the Confederate States that, unless they returned to their allegiance to the Federal government before January 1, 1863, he would declare all their slaves to be free. No notice was taken of this threat, and at the date named the final proclamation appeared. This was a heavy blow to the interests of the South. The Confederate authorities had been hoping that France and England would recognize the independence of the Confederate States. After the proclamation, such a step would have

appeared to the people of England like casting their influence against the abolition of slavery, an institution with which they had no sympathy. The French government would not take action without the coöperation of the English.

473. Galveston and Charleston. Early in the year General Magruder, the Confederate commander in Texas, planted batteries on the shore opposite Galveston, which was occupied by the Federals. Under the protection of these batteries two river steam packets, lined on each side with cotton bales, and manned by Texan cavalrymen, swept boldly down on the Federal gunboats. One of the latter was captured and another blown up; the remainder got away. The garrison of the city surrendered January 1. The attempt of the Federal admiral, Dupont, to seize Charleston, again under the command of General Beauregard, was unsuccessful. After a terrific bombardment of Fort Sumter the fleet was forced to fall back to sea, having lost one of its finest vessels. The subsequent efforts of General Gillmore to capture Charleston also proved in vain.

474. Battle of Chancellorsville. *Hooker Crosses the Rappahannock.* After the battle of Fredericksburg Burnside had been superseded by General Hooker, known as "Fighting Joe." In the early spring Hooker's army of 120,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry crossed the Rappahannock in detachments, both above and below Fredericksburg, in order to attack at one and the same time the Confederate forces from two opposite points of the compass. Lee, owing to the absence of Longstreet, had only 57,000 troops to oppose this host. On April 30 Hooker, who had passed the Rappahannock above Fredericksburg, took position at Chancellorsville, in a country of almost impenetrable thickets. Lee decided to strike this part of the Federal army before Sedgwick, who had crossed below Fredericksburg, could come to its assistance. Jackson was sent (May 2) by a circuitous route of fifteen miles, through

the underbrush, to double up the Federal extreme right.[1] In the moment of victory, having gone forward to reconnoiter, he fell wounded by a volley which his own soldiers had fired by mistake. His troops, uniting with those of Lee, drove the Federals back to the junction of the Rapidan and Rappahannock rivers, where they were penned up in a dangerous corner.

"Stonewall" Jackson

475. *Sedgwick Checked.* Lee was preparing for the last spring when informed of Sedgwick's approach in the rear. Turning on the latter (May 3) with a part of his forces, he compelled him to retreat in haste across the Rappahannock. Hooker, before he could be attacked again, made good his escape by the upper fords. The losses in killed, wounded, and missing on both sides equaled about 30,000 men. On May 10 General Jackson died, murmuring, doubtless with memories of the Shenandoah Valley, which he had made forever famous, flitting through his delirious brain: "Let us cross over the river and rest under the shade of the trees."

476. The Gettysburg Campaign. *Invasion of Pennsylvania.* The hour now seemed favorable for one supreme military effort, with which Southern independence might be won. The Confederate government decided to invade the North, in

[1] As Jackson marched with extraordinary speed through the undergrowth, sending the deer and other wild animals scurrying before him, the Federals caught glimpses from time to time of his columns, but without alarm, as they thought it was only the Confederate line in retreat.

the hope that a victory gained on that ground would cause the European powers to recognize the nationality of the Confederate States. Lee, dividing his army into three corps, under the command respectively of Longstreet, Hill, and Ewell, marched straight toward the Valley, and on June 26 crossed the Potomac at Williamsport (map, p. 282). On the way Stuart had defeated Pleasonton at Brandy Station in a great cavalry fight, and Ewell had defeated Milroy, at Winchester. The North was greatly alarmed; Lincoln issued a call for 120,000 additional men; Hooker hurried forward with the Federal army toward Frederick. Here he was superseded by General Meade.

George G. Meade

477. *First Day's Battle.* General Lee ordered his different corps to concentrate in the vicinity of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania,[1] a town situated in a country crossed by a series of ridges. Here on July 1 a part of General Hill's corps, owing to the absence of the Confederate cavalry on a raid, came unexpectedly into collision with a body of Federal cavalry under General Buford. The main body of the Federal army was stationed many miles away. Reynolds marched up to Buford's assistance with the first Federal corps, and Howard with the eleventh; but the Confederates, having been reën-

[1] On entering Pennsylvania, General Lee issued a proclamation warning his soldiers against committing personal outrage of any kind or destroying private property. "It must be remembered," he declared, "that we make war only on armed men." This order was strictly observed.

forced, drove the Federal troops back into Gettysburg. General Reynolds was killed. The Federals now retreated to Cemetery Ridge, just south of the village.

478. *Second Day's Battle.* By four o'clock next day all of the Federal corps had come up, and posted themselves along the crest of the southern ridges, in an area occupying barely three square miles, protected by ledges of rock, stone

Third Day of Battle of Gettysburg

walls, and earthworks. The Confederate line ran along Seminary Ridge, separated by a plain from the position of the Federal army. The battle did not begin until the afternoon. Longstreet, on the right, drove the Federals in front of him back to their main defenses; Ewell, on the left, seized but could not hold Cemetery Ridge. When night fell, Meade had been forced to concentrate his entire strength on the crest of the hills.

479. *Third Day's Battle.* The battle of the third day began at one o'clock in the afternoon with the roar of one

hundred and fifty Confederate guns, pointed straight at Cemetery Hill. The Federal artillery replied, and for the space of one hour the terrible cannonade was kept up. At the end of that time, Pickett's division and Pettigrew's brigades, in order to capture Cemetery Hill, advanced across the plain in the midst of the most galling Federal fire. Pettigrew's brigades in vain threw themselves on a stone wall in their way. The artillery and musketry of the Federal army were soon concentrated on Pickett's division, which rushed up the slope and planted their battle flags on the crest of the ridge; no reënforcements came to their aid; Generals Garnett, Armistead, Barksdale, and Kemper had been killed or disabled; without officers to command them, with half of their own number fallen, they were forced to retire from the heights they had momentarily won.

480. *Lee Retreats.* This repulse closed the battle. The killed, wounded, or missing, nearly equally divided between the two sides, amounted in all to 44,000 men.[1] Lee maintained his position for a day, ready to repel an assault, should one be made. On the night of July 4 he withdrew his army from Gettysburg, and shortly thereafter crossed the Potomac. The Federals had slowly followed, but had not seriously harassed his march. By the autumn Lee had drawn his forces back to the Rapidan. Without joining in any further serious engagements, the two opposing armies soon went into winter quarters.

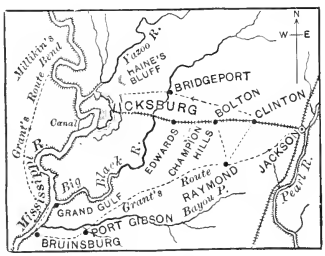
The War in the West, 1863

481. Vicksburg. *Value of the City to the South.* The failure of the Gettysburg campaign was a terrible blow to the fortunes of the Confederacy in the East, not only by checking

[1] On the Federal side four general officers had been killed, thirteen wounded, including Sickles, Hancock, and Gibbon.

all further invasions of the North, but also by destroying all hope of foreign recognition. The fall of Vicksburg was an equally serious blow in the southwest. Vicksburg was of great importance to the Confederates as enabling them to pass without molestation from the trans-Mississippi Department to the east bank of the river, and the reverse. Great stores of provisions from that Department were transported by way of the city, to supply the Confederate armies. General Grant determined, if possible, to capture it.[1] He first tried to secure an artificial water way around the city for his gunboats and transports by the digging of two canals; he then tried to make Vicksburg an inland town by diverting the Mississippi from its channel. Both attempts failed.

482. *The Siege.* In April, Grant marched down the west bank of the Mississippi, and crossing below Vicksburg, moved toward Jackson. General Joseph E. Johnston was now in command of the Confederate forces in Mississippi, and he ordered General Pemberton, who was stationed between Grant and Vicksburg, to unite with him near Clinton. Pemberton disobeyed the order, and being defeated twice (Champion Hills and Big Black River, May 16, 17), retired behind the fortifications of Vicksburg. Being ordered to abandon that post, he again disobeyed, and in a few days the Federal army had



Vicinity of Vicksburg

[1] Grant had collected at Holly Springs, Mississippi, supplies valued at several million dollars. On December 29 (1862), Van Dorn, who was making a raid in Grant's rear, struck Holly Springs, captured two thousand prisoners, and destroyed the military stores. At Chickasaw Bayou, near the mouth of the Yazoo River, General Sherman was repulsed by General Stephen D. Lee, with a loss of several thousand men.

completely invested the city. A continuous rain of shot and shell fell upon the roofs and in the streets of the heroic town, and many of the families were forced to find refuge in caves dug in the side of the bluff. The besieged were at last reduced to slender rations of mule meat. On July 4 Vicksburg surrendered, delivering into the hands of the Federals 31,000 prisoners and immense stores of arms and ammunition.[1]

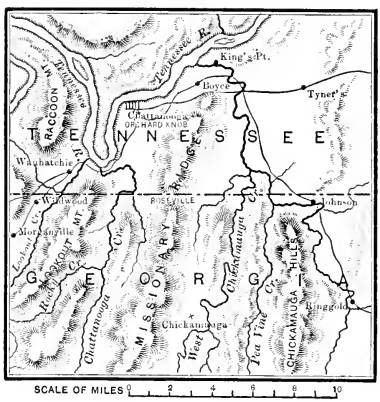
Siege of Vicksburg

Port Hudson was captured a few days later (July 9). The Federals now controlled the Mississippi River from its source to its mouth, and the Confederacy was thus cut in two.

483. Battles around Chattanooga. *Chickamauga.* After the battle of Murfreesboro, Bragg had retired to Tullahoma (map, p. 302). In June Rosecrans, at the head of 60,000 men, began to march southeastward, with the design of cutting the

[1] At Vicksburg, as at Appomattox later on, General Grant showed characteristic delicacy and generosity in his respect for the feelings of the prisoners.

Confederate communications with Georgia and the Eastern States. Bragg, with 50,000 troops, fell back to Chattanooga, and on the approach of Rosecrans, took post in the Chickamauga Valley, not far away, in order to protect the railway running through that valley into Georgia. Here he was reenforced by 11,000 troops from Virginia, under the command of Longstreet. On September 19 the fighting began, and when darkness fell, Bragg had failed to thrust his forces between the Federals and Chattanooga. The next day Longstreet pressed boldly between the Federal right and center, and drove that part of the Federal army back in great confusion toward Chattanooga. The Federal left, under General Thomas, which stood like a rock, continued to hold its ground until night came on, and then retreated in good order, in the same direction. After this, Thomas was always known as the "Rock of Chickamauga."



Chattanooga and Vicinity

484. *Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge.* Rosecrans was soon superseded by Thomas, and reënforcements under Hooker and Sherman were hurried forward to Chattanooga. By November 15 a large body of Federal troops had been concentrated in that town, under the supreme command of General Grant. At this critical moment Davis gave orders that Longstreet should march into eastern Tennessee with 15,000 infantry and Wheeler's cavalry, and drive General Burnside out of that region. General Grant promptly

took advantage of the withdrawal of this large body of men to strike a blow at the remaining Confederate army. On November 24 his lieutenant, Hooker, fought his way around the north end of Lookout Mountain,[1] whereupon the Confederates defending it retreated to Missionary Ridge. Sherman seized the north end of the Ridge (November 25), and as the Confederates sought to drive him off, Thomas's troops, which were stationed in the valley below, boldly moved up the mountain side, and attacking the Confederate center, compelled the entire Confederate army to retire precipitately from the ground. It finally fell back to Dalton in Georgia, where General Johnston took command. Sherman, in the meanwhile, had gone to Burnside's relief at Knoxville in east Tennessee. Yielding before an overwhelming force, Longstreet retreated into Virginia.

Ulysses S. Grant

485. Federal Financial Measures. *Greenbacks.* The Federal government had recourse to various means to meet the enormous expense of carrying on the war. It first issued a great volume of paper money, which could be used in the payment of all debts. These notes, known as "greenbacks," had nothing to make them good except the credit of the government, and as this credit, in the beginning, declined, owing to military reverses, it took at one time $2.80 in paper money to equal $1 in gold.

[1] This was the "Battle above the Clouds."

486. *National Banks.* The government's next step was to pass a National Bank Act, providing for the organization of new banks by the investment of capital in United States bonds. The Treasury thus secured new purchasers for its securities, when these had to be sold in order to obtain money for supplying the army. The national banks had the right to issue paper notes, which were made good by the government's guarantee. A system of internal taxation, reaching nearly every branch of business, further increased the volume of funds at the disposal of the Federal government.

487. Condition at the South. *The South's Privations.* In spite of taxes, and the drain of men for the armies, the North rapidly grew in national wealth. It was just the opposite with the South. Swarms of soldiers, passing in every direction, had laid waste the country. The very necessities of life grew scarce. A large number of manufactured articles of the simplest kind could not be procured at all. All the clothing was made in the household. The Confederate currency fell steadily in purchasing power, until it required a very large sum on its face value to buy the cheapest article for sale.

488. *Treatment of Prisoners.* Having to endure all sorts of deprivations themselves, the Southern people naturally lacked the means to ease the condition of their prisoners of war. At the North, there were sanitary commissions to watch over the health of the soldiers in camp; and there were hospitals, where every appliance of medical science, and every comfort that money could purchase, were found to soothe the pains of the Federal wounded. The Confederate wounded, on the other hand, had little to satisfy their needs beyond what the ministrations of skillful physicians and loving nurses could give.

489. *Even when well and in active service* the Confederate troops had food and clothing only of the simplest kind. The captive could hardly expect to fare better than his captor.

After the summer of 1863 the Federal government rarely consented to an exchange, and at the very time the Confederacy was the least able to make the condition of its prisoners one of tolerable comfort, not only did the number increase, but also the means of caring for them properly steadily diminished.

490. West Virginia and Nevada. From the beginning of the war all that part of the Old Dominion lying west of the Alleghanies had practically been under Federal control. Lincoln recognized these counties as forming Virginia, the delegates they sent to Wheeling, as the State legislature, and Francis H. Pierpont, as governor. Claiming to act for the entire State, these counties chose senators and representatives, who took seats in the Federal Congress. In 1863 this part of Virginia was admitted to the Union as the State of West Virginia, the thirty-fifth State.[1] Nevada, the thirty-sixth State, was admitted in 1864. It was carved out of territory acquired by the war with Mexico. It derived its name from the Nevada Mountains, the word signifying "snow-covered." Its first settlement was due to the discovery of silver mines.

The War in the West, 1864

491. At the beginning of 1864 the country west of the Mississippi River was entirely cut off from the Confederacy. Virginia was in the hands of the Federals as far as the Rapidan, while the whole of Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee had

[1] From the Southern point of view, the creation of West Virginia as a new State, without the consent of Virginia, was unconstitutional, as it was in defiance of the provision of the national Constitution that a State should not be divided without its consent. From the Northern point of view, this consent was given by the Pierpont legislature at Wheeling, which was accepted as the "reconstructed" government of Virginia. West Virginia had its birth in the violence of the times, and also in the difference of interest which had long separated it, in every way but politically, from eastern Virginia.

been overrun. Alabama, South and North Carolina, and Texas alone were free from the presence of large bodies of Federal troops. The whole line of seacoast, however, was still under a close and vigilant blockade. And yet, in spite of all this, the people and the government of the Confederate States were as resolute as ever in fighting for their independence.

492. Federal and Confederate Armies. On March 2 Grant was appointed lieutenant general of all the armies of the United States. He made his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, which numbered 118,000 effective men and was opposed by the Army of Northern Virginia, under Lee, which did not exceed 61,000. Sherman was placed at the head of the Federal forces in the West, with immediate command of the army at Chattanooga, which numbered 100,000 and was opposed by the Confederate army of about 50,000, under J. E. Johnston.[1]

493. In the Southwest. *Olustee and Fort Pillow.* In Florida, at Olustee, on February 20, the Confederates won a decisive victory; but in Alabama, General Polk was forced to retreat toward Mobile by General Sherman, who had been engaged in ravaging the

[1] Since the beginning of the year but one military event of importance had taken place. This was the raid of General Kilpatrick, at the head of 4000 cavalrymen, in the hope of destroying General Lee's railroad communications with Richmond, and setting free the Federal prisoners in that city. A column, headed by Colonel Ulrich Dahlgren, reached the neighborhood of the city, but was there driven off, after the fall of its leader.

country around Meridian, Mississippi. At Okolona (map, p. 300) General Forrest came suddenly upon General W. S. Smith, a lieutenant of Sherman's, and drove him back, with heavy loss, toward Memphis. Following in his track, Forrest laid siege to Fort Pillow on the Mississippi, occupied chiefly by a large body of negro troops, and, on April 12, compelled the garrison, after a terrible slaughter, to take refuge in the Federal gunboats in the river.

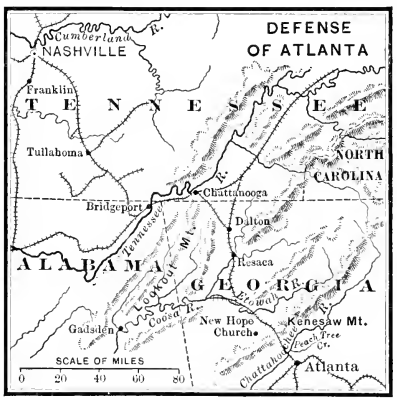
494. *General Banks.* In the spring of 1864 General Banks, who was in command at New Orleans, led an army against northern Louisiana and Texas. General Richard Taylor was at the head of the Confederate forces in the former State. Marching overland toward Shreveport, Banks, having captured Fort de Russy, came upon Taylor, stationed near Mansfield. Taylor boldly attacked him (April 8) and drove him back to Pleasant Hill. The Federals made a stand here (April 9), but soon retreated to New Orleans, after a heavy loss. The water in the Red River fell at this time, and Admiral Porter, who had transported Banks's army up the river, in withdrawing his gunboats, was compelled to make a dam at one place to impound enough water to float them down the stream.

495. *Steele and Price.* The Federals were now in possession of Little Rock, Arkansas, but in a battle with the Confederate army at Jenkins Ferry (April 30) General Steele met with a severe repulse. In the following September the Confederate General Price marched as far into Missouri as Pilot Knob, but, his force having been greatly weakened, he was attacked and defeated. Retreating into Kansas, he was defeated a second time, and then withdrew into Arkansas.

496. Defense and Fall of Atlanta. *Johnston and Sherman.* On May 4, the day on which the Army of the Potomac began its campaign in Virginia, the Federal army of the West, under Sherman, set out from Chattanooga, in order to assail the Con-

federate troops, under Johnston, stationed at Dalton, Georgia (§ 484). By threatening the Confederate flank at the very time he also threatened the front, Sherman compelled his opponent to fall back from position to position until the whole length of country between Resaca and the Etowah River had been passed over. Having checked the Federals at Resaca and New Hope Church, and also at Kenesaw Mountain, Johnston took his stand on Peach Tree Creek, not far north of Atlanta. In a skirmish during the retreat he had lost General Polk, one of the bravest of his lieutenants.

497. *General Hood.* There was a general cry in the Confederacy for more aggressive tactics; and Johnston was superseded by General Hood, who had the reputation of being a bold fighter. By July 20 the Confederates had withdrawn into intrenchments in the immediate vicinity of Atlanta. On that day a sharp attack was made on the Federal lines, and also on the 22d and 28th; but in each case, after temporary success, the Confederate troops had to fall back to the shelter of their fortifications. In the second assault General McPherson, a brave and able Federal officer, was killed. General Wheeler, at the head of the Confederate cavalry, made several successful raids, in the course of which he, for a time, cut the Federal army off from the base of its supplies. Sherman now concentrated his army on the southern and western sides of the city, and thus blocked the main line of Confederate supplies. On September 1 Hood



was forced to evacuate Atlanta, which was the principal seat in the South for the manufacture of military stores; and its fall, for that reason, struck a terrible blow at the already declining fortunes of the Confederacy.

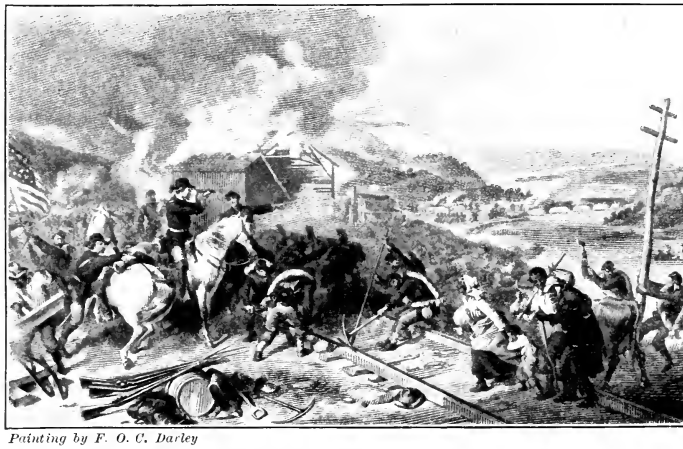
498. Mobile Bay and Fort Fisher. The fall of Atlanta was rendered the more fatal by the fact that Mobile (mo beel') Bay[1] had already been captured by Farragut, thus cutting off all prospect of securing supplies in that direction through Confederate blockade runners. Wilmington, North Carolina, still remained open. The entrance to its water way was defended by Fort Fisher. In December this fort successfully resisted an attempt by a large Federal fleet to reduce it. A huge ship torpedo, charged with two hundred and fifty tons of gunpowder, was exploded under its walls without effect.

499. Hood in Tennessee. On abandoning Atlanta, Hood moved northward, in the hope of drawing Sherman away from Georgia, the granary of the Confederacy. After a detour to Gadsden, Alabama, he entered Tennessee. In the meanwhile Forrest had been raiding as far as Mississippi — had set on fire Federal gunboats and transports, had destroyed vast quantities of supplies, and defeated large bodies of Federal troops. Advancing through Tennessee, Hood encountered General Schofield at Franklin, and compelled him to retreat, but only after the Federals had inflicted terrible losses on the Confederate ranks, including five general officers, among them the brilliant Cleburne. At Nashville Hood, on December 15, came into conflict with the Federal forces stationed there, under General Thomas. On the second day of the battle the whole Confederate army was driven back in the utmost confusion, and it kept up its rapid retreat as far as Bridgeport. The vigilance of Forrest and

[1] The city of Mobile, which was gallantly defended by General Dabney H. Maury, was not evacuated by the Confederates until three days after General Lee surrendered at Appomattox.

Stephen D. Lee alone saved it from destruction. This defeat was a fatal blow to the Confederacy in the West and Southwest.

500. Sherman's March to the Sea. On November 15 the army under General Sherman started from Atlanta on its march to the sea. Leaving the base of his supplies behind, Sherman determined to live chiefly on the country through which he passed. Stretching out his troops, 60,000 strong, in a line



Painting by F. O. C. Darley

Sherman's March to the Sea

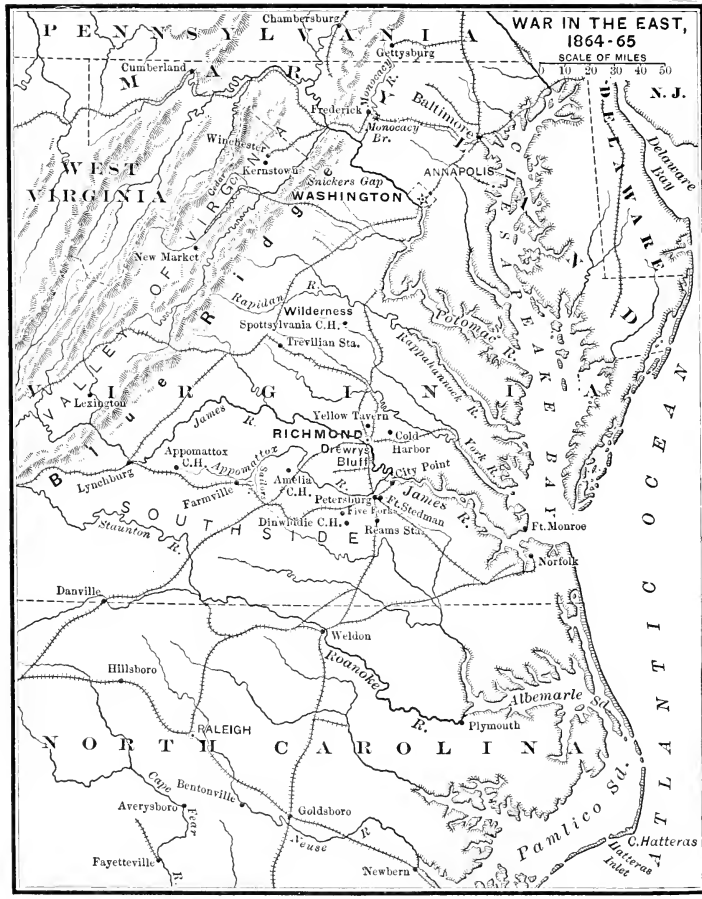
forty miles in length, he swept along like some terrible force of nature which recks not of the destruction it causes. He estimated the damage he inflicted at $100,000,000. General Kilpatrick, the commander of the Federal cavalry, declared that the only evidences of former habitations left in the Federal track were the blackened brick chimneys of the residences which had been burned. One month after leaving Atlanta Sherman arrived in the neighborhood of Savannah. On the night of December 20 General Hardee, the Confederate

officer in command, aware that his force was not sufficient for the defense of the city, withdrew, and Sherman marched in on December 21.

The War in the East, 1864

501. The Wilderness. On May 4 Grant crossed the Rapidan with his army. The next day the terrible conflict between the two armies began in a country so covered with thickets that it was known, locally, as the "Wilderness." It was a hand to hand fight between men moving on foot through the bush. In the battles of the 5th and 6th, which ended in the failure of the Federal assaults, Lee inflicted a loss of over 17,000 men on the Federal army, while his own loss did not exceed half that number. The thickets in which the conflict went on took fire, adding to the horrors of the scene. Grant, on the night of the 7th, set his troops in motion eastward, in order to turn his opponent's right flank. The next day, at Spottsylvania Courthouse, the fighting began again. It was not until the 12th that the Federals gained an advantage; they then succeeded in capturing a salient point in the line of the Confederate intrenchments. As they poured in, they were received with a terrific fire from the brigades under the command of General Gordon, and were finally driven back to what came to be known as the "Bloody Angle." Here the ground was soon heaped with corpses, and the very trees were cut down by the volleys of bullets.

502. Battle of Cold Harbor. Grant having found it impossible to break through, after repeated assaults, resumed the march eastward. At Cold Harbor the Federal army again saw itself confronted by Lee, with a much smaller force. On June 3 the Federals, in lines six miles in length, came on to carry the Confederate breastworks, but so terrible were the volleys poured into their ranks that they fell back in



great confusion, after losing, in a few minutes, 13,000 of their number.

503. The Terrible Losses. Out of a total of 192,000 Federal soldiers 55,000 had been killed or disabled since Grant took command. The Confederate army out of a total of 78,000 had lost 20,000 men. But the Federals could better afford to lose

100,000 men than the Confederates 10,000. The Federal resources in troops were practically boundless; the Confederate were already exhausted. There is in history no record of greater valor and fortitude, in the face of frightful odds, than the Confederate soldiers had displayed in this campaign.

504. Around Richmond and in the Valley. *Death of Stuart.* Early in May Sheridan, at the head of a large body of cavalry, had marched southward in order to cut Lee's line of communication with Richmond. Stuart set out in pursuit; and at Yellow Tavern the two opposing forces met. The Confederate leader was mortally wounded. Sheridan was checked, and only succeeded in joining Grant by making a long and roundabout march. In the meanwhile General Butler, who had landed at the mouth of the Appomattox River in order to break the Confederate communications south of Petersburg, had attempted to seize Drewrys Bluff, which guarded the approach to Richmond by water. Beauregard stopped the advance of the Federal troops, and in the end drove them back to the shelter of their gunboats.

505. *Sigel and Hunter.* General Sigel had been sent to the Valley of Virginia to prevent General Lee from drawing supplies from that region. At New Market he encountered a Confederate force, under General Breckinridge, and was badly repulsed (May 15). A battalion of cadets from the Virginia Military Institute at Lexington[1] — a seat of learning which had furnished many distinguished officers to the Confederacy — were among the soldiers engaged in this battle. They fought with the bravery and steadiness of veterans. General Hunter superseded Sigel and began a systematic devastation of the valley by burning bridges, residences, farm-

[1] The buildings of the Institute were later on burned by the Federal General Hunter.

houses, trampling down the crops, carrying off the live stock, and tearing up the railroads. Sheridan attempted to form a junction with Hunter, but was so badly defeated by General Hampton at Trevilian Station that he was diverted from his purpose. In the interval Hunter had retreated hastily into West Virginia, pursued by the Confederates.

Cadets at New Market

506. Siege of Petersburg. *Grant crosses the James.* On June 14 General Grant, finding it impossible to break through the Confederate army and capture Richmond from the north, moved across the James River, in order to assail Petersburg, and thus cut the capital off from its southern connections. Beauregard, at the head of only 2200 men, was now in command of that city, and successfully resisted the attacks upon his breastworks of the van of the Federal army, numbering 18,000 men. By June 18 the bulk of the Confederate forces under Lee had come to his assistance. The repeated assaults

of the Federals under Hancock and Burnside having been repelled, Grant determined to extend his earthworks southward and then westward, and thus hem Lee in with impregnable lines of fortification.

507. *The superiority in resources* of men, provisions, arms, and military stores which Grant enjoyed was now greater than ever before. There was no danger that the communications of his troops would be cut. Wherever he took a position a telegraph line was immediately erected for the instant conveyance of every order to the remotest sections of the Federal armies and fleets, and of every demand for aid to the government at Washington.

The situation of Lee was melancholy in comparison. He had both Richmond and Petersburg to defend on a line thirty-five miles in length. The steady narrowing of the area of country under the control of the Confederacy had rapidly diminished the number of conscripts, the only means of renewing the strength of his forces, while so scant was the supply of food, owing to the same cause, that four pounds of flour and one pound of meat formed the daily rations of four soldiers. The clothing worn by the troops had been so long used, that it seemed difficult for it to do further service, and yet there was little to be procured to replace it. In spite of these deficiencies the moral tone of the Confederate army was as firm as if the prospect of success was assured. Nothing short of annihilation could destroy the spirit of that wonderful organization.

508. *Federals Checked.* On June 22, as the troops of the Federal left were in the act of spreading out to occupy a new position, a Confederate force, under General Mahone, fell suddenly and unexpectedly on them, carried a part of their intrenchments, and only drew off as night came on. A large body of Federal cavalry, commanded by General Wilson,

which had been making a destructive raid through Southside, Virginia, were defeated at Reams Station, on the Weldon Railroad, and driven back to the main Federal army with heavy loss.

509. *Mine Exploded.* Despairing of breaking through the Confederate intrenchments by an ordinary assault, Grant dug a mine under them at a selected angle. The mine was exploded (July 30), throwing huge masses of earth high up in air. A strong force of Federal troops marched up to pass through the breach, but the Confederates at once opened such a terrific fire on the advancing columns that they were compelled to seek refuge in the yawning chasm. A large body of negro soldiers who followed, were driven to the same course. Reënforcements were rushed forward, which resulted in the seizure of a part of the Confederate lines, but the Federals were soon pressed back. The corpses were now piled up in the crater. A white flag was raised above its rim, and all who were alive surrendered. The Federals had lost 4000 men; the Confederates about 400.

510. Early's Valley Campaign. *Monocacy and Kernstown.* With a view of drawing off a part of the Federal forces around Petersburg, General Early was ordered by Lee to march down the Valley, cross the Potomac, and make a feint of attacking Washington. By July 6 he had moved into Maryland, and three days later, defeated General Wallace at Monocacy Bridge. Arriving at the outer line of the fortifications of Washington (July 11), he was compelled to withdraw by the overwhelming number of troops, including two corps of Grant's army, gathered to resist his further advance. Recrossing the Potomac and de-

Jubal A. Early

feating one Federal force at Snickers Gap, and another at Kernstown, he took post near Winchester.[1]

511. *General Sheridan.* Grant now sent General Sheridan to the Valley at the head of 50,000 men. Even with the reënforcements that General Lee hurried forward, Early could bring in the field only about 20,000 men. On September 19, and again on the 22d, the Confederates were defeated at and near Winchester, but it was only after inflicting heavy losses that they slowly retired up the Valley. In October they received some addition to their strength by the arrival of General Kershaw from the lines around Petersburg. On October 19 Early moved forward and attacked the Federal intrenched camp at Cedar Creek, and drove the Federals out in confusion. The Confederates, in the enjoyment of the supplies which the camp afforded, discontinued the pursuit. This gave Sheridan, who was many miles away when the battle began, time to ride foward at headlong speed, and rallying the fugitives, to bring them into action again. So completely was Early now defeated that he was afterward unable to make

Philip H. Sheridan

[1] Early sent General Bradley T. Johnson to Cumberland, in Maryland, and General McCausland to Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania, to levy upon their inhabitants a sum sufficient to reimburse those citizens of the Valley whose homes Hunter had burned down. Chambersburg refused to comply, and in accord with instructions which McCausland had received, was given over to the flames. Colonel William E. Peters, when commanded to set the town on fire, returned the memorable reply: "With a full knowledge of the consequences of refusing to obey orders, I have to say you may take my sword, but I will not use the torch against innocent non-combatants."

any headway against his powerful opponent. Sheridan was so successful in ravaging the Valley that he declared that even "a crow flying over it would find it necessary to carry his rations with him."

512. Naval Operations. *The "Alabama" Sunk.* During the time that the Confederate forces on land were slowly wearing away under the constant impact of the overwhelming Federal resources in men and supplies, the Confederate cruisers *Alabama, Georgia, Florida,* and *Shenandoah* were sweeping the last vestige of the Federal merchant marine from the ocean. The *Alabama* alone destroyed ships and cargoes valued at $10,000,000. On June 11 she put into the harbor of Cherbourg, in France, for repairs and a supply of fuel. The *Kearsarge,* a larger and more heavily armed vessel, under the command of Captain Winslow, came to anchor in the offing and awaited her return to sea. On June 19 the *Alabama* left the harbor, and for an hour the two ships, moving in double circuits, cannonaded each other. At the end of that time Semmes, finding his vessel disabled, drew off, and she soon went to the bottom. The Confederate commander and a part of his crew escaped by means of an English yacht which had been hovering around.

513. *The "Florida" and other Confederate Ships.* The *Florida* was attacked unexpectedly and in defiance of international law in the Brazilian port of Bahia, and captured. The *Shenandoah,* under the command of Captain Waddell, ravaged the Northern whaling interests in the Pacific until the Confederacy fell, and then surrendered to the United States consul in Liverpool. The *Georgia* was seized off the coast of Portugal at a time when she was without armament. The *Albemarle,* while guarding Plymouth, North Carolina, from invasion, was blown up in October, 1864, with a torpedo by Lieutenant Cushing, who with a few sailors in a small boat, had stealthily, under cover of night, ascended the Roanoke River

to the spot where she lay at anchor. Having successfully performed this exploit, one of the boldest in American naval history, Cushing, with only one of his crew, managed to escape.

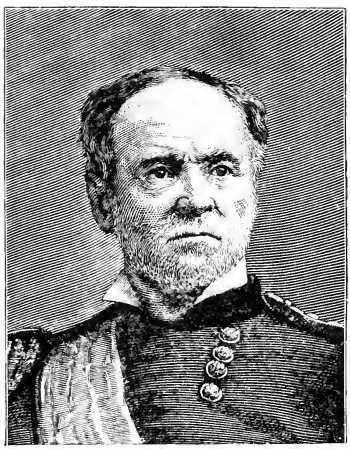
514. Reëlection of Lincoln. In the Federal election that took place in November, Lincoln was reëlected President, with Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, as Vice President. Their opponents before the people were General McClellan and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, who were nominated by those Democrats who desired the reëstablishment of peace by negotiations with the South. General John C. Frémont had been nominated for the presidency by a wing of the Republican party which favored more radical measures than Lincoln approved, but withdrew before the day of election.

The End of the War, 1865

515. Fall of Fort Fisher. In January a force of 8000 men, under General Terry, together with a fleet of about sixty vessels was sent to capture Fort Fisher, which defended the approaches by water to Wilmington, North Carolina, the last Confederate post open to blockade runners (map, p. 263). On January 15 the bombardment began; the vessels moved in a circuit off the fort, and, ship following ship, hurled the contents of four hundred and thirteen guns against its walls. The Federal troops had now landed, and, after meeting an obstinate resistance, carried the outer line of fortifications, but it was not until midnight that the inner was captured. General Whiting, who commanded the fort, was killed, and Colonel Lamb, who succeeded him, disabled. The fall of Fort Fisher made Wilmington untenable, and it was soon occupied by a Federal force.

516. Sherman in the Carolinas. Sherman now started (February 1) from Savannah northward to join the Army of the

Potomac in Virginia. His force numbered about 60,000 men. In passing through South Carolina, the devastation which he carried in his footsteps, the desolation which he left behind him, exceeded even the waste and ruin which distinguished the march to the sea. When the Federals took possession of Charleston after its evacuation by the Confederates (February 18), Sherman had already reached Columbia (February 17). The Federal troops had barely entered Columbia when it was found to be on fire, and all efforts of the local authorities to put it out were brought to naught by the soldiers persisting in cutting the hose. The women and children were forced to take refuge in the streets and open squares.[1] Sherman marched northward to Fayetteville (map, p. 306), and then, turning toward Goldsboro, set out for Raleigh, with his army increased to 100,000 men by his junction with Schofield and Terry. As he drew near, General Johnston, at the head of a force of about 20,000 men, with which he had already



W. T. Sherman

[1] Desperate as the fortunes of the Confederacy had been from the beginning of Sherman's march toward Virginia, the Southern people could not yet make up their minds to yield. This was shown by the result of the Peace Conference, which was held at City Point, Virginia, in February, 1865, between Lincoln and Seward, as the Federal representatives, and Stephens, Hunter, and Campbell, as the Confederate. Lincoln insisted that no terms would receive his approval unless the South would agree to abolish slavery and reënter the Union without conditions. The only instruction which the Confederate commissioners had received was to secure recognition of the independence of the Confederate States. The conference ended in nothing.

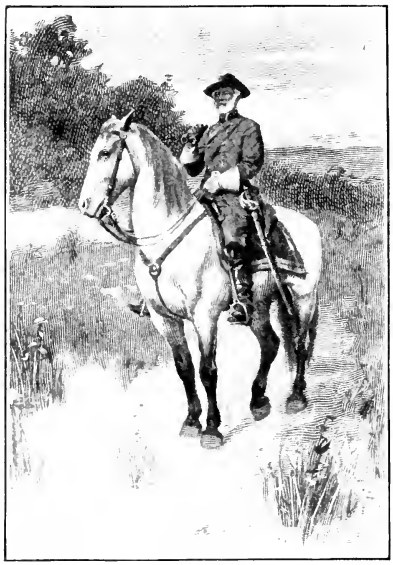
attacked the Federals at Averysboro and Bentonville, fell back to Hillsboro, and Sherman followed in his rear.

517. Fort Stedman. Sheridan, having early in March dispersed the remnant of Early's army, united his forces with the main Federal army posted at Petersburg. Lee now saw that his only alternative was to abandon his intrenchments, leaving Richmond also to its fate, and form a junction with the Confederate forces stationed in the Carolinas. A delay of several weeks followed in anticipation of better weather and improvement in the roads. Then, in order to draw the Federal left wing off from the path of his proposed retreat, he commanded General Gordon to attack Fort Stedman, a fortification on the Federal right. Gordon captured the fort (March 25), but could not seize the crest in the rear, because no reënforcements came to his support. He was, therefore, compelled to withdraw from the ground he had won. Lee's plan had failed.

518. Five Forks. The Confederate line of defense, thirty-five miles in length, was now so thinly guarded that, in places, the men stood several yards apart. General Grant had not only sufficient troops at hand to defend the Federal breastworks, but also large bodies for use in attacking the flanks and rear of the Confederate army, or breaking up the railways by means of which that army obtained its supplies. In March, Sheridan was sent to destroy the Southside, and Richmond and Danville railroads. On March 31, Fitzhugh Lee and Pickett, who had followed him, assailed and drove him southward toward Dinwiddie Courthouse; but on April 1 Sheridan, returning upon his course, struck the Confederates a terrible blow at Five Forks, which compelled them to retreat with heavy loss. In the meanwhile a part of the Confederate army had left its intrenchments and thrown itself on the Federal left, in the hope of breaking through, but

failing had resumed its former position. Grant now (April 2) ordered a general assault on the entire line of the Confederate breastworks. A Federal army of 100,000 men was pitted against 30,000 Confederates. The Confederates were forced to fall back to the protection of their inner line of fortifications.

519. Richmond Abandoned. Lee, seeing that Petersburg could no longer be held, informed Davis of the fact by telegraph, and in a few hours Richmond was abandoned by the Confederate officials (April 2). There was soon much drunken disorder in the streets, and the shops were openly pillaged. A roaring conflagration began, which threw over the city a dense cloud of smoke. The bridges across the river caught on fire, as well as the vessels lying at the wharves. In the midst of this wild uproar and confusion a detachment of Federal cavalry marched in and drew rein in the Capitol Square.



General Lee and his Horse, "Traveler"

520. Petersburg Abandoned. Lee withdrew from Petersburg, and set out toward Amelia Courthouse, where he had ordered a supply of provisions to be collected. On arriving there, he found that this supply had been carried on to Richmond. The country had to be scoured for some means of subsistence. The delay that followed was fatal, as Grant, by sending Sheridan forward, barred the Confederate advance along the line

of the Danville Railroad, upon which alone they could rely for a certain supply of food. Lee started in the direction of Lynchburg, in the hope of making a successful stand behind the Staunton River until Johnston's army could join him. At Sailors Creek, on April 6, his rear guard, numbering nearly 10,000 men, was attacked, and only a few hundred escaped death or capture. Passing through Farmville, where he received a letter from Grant requesting him to surrender, Lee arrived at Appomattox Courthouse on the evening of April 8, only to find Sheridan strongly posted in advance. At one o'clock the next morning he sent Gordon and Fitzhugh Lee forward to break through. The Federal cavalry were driven back, only to expose to view great masses of infantry.

521. Appomattox Courthouse. *Lee and Grant.* Lee now (April 9) sent a note to Grant, asking for an interview in which to discuss the terms of surrender. While waiting for a reply, with his faithful aides, Colonels Charles Marshall and Walter H. Taylor, in attendance, he rested for a short while on a rude couch in an apple orchard situated near the front of the Confederate lines. Grant having appointed Appomattox Courthouse as the place of meeting, Lee rode forward to the village, accompanied by Colonel Marshall.[1] He had not even yet determined to surrender his army. It all depended on the liberality of the terms offered. If these terms should be harsh, "I will put myself at the head of the remnant of my brave men," he declared, "and we will die in our tracks."

522. *Terms of Surrender.* Fortunately there was no need to pursue such a course. The Confederate commander had in

[1] The interview between Grant and Lee took place at the residence of Wilmer McLean. McLean had formerly lived in a house built on the battlefield of Bull Run, but had left that part of Virginia as being too much exposed to war.

Grant a magnanimous foe. The latter's conduct in this hour of triumph was marked by all the consideration and delicacy of a truly great man. History furnishes few examples of equal, not one of superior, generosity and chivalry in bearing on a similar occasion. By the terms of surrender the officers and privates were paroled on promising that they would not bear arms against the United States until exchanged. The

Surrender of Lee

officers were allowed to retain their side arms, and officers and men their baggage and horses. Lee had said that his cavalrymen for the most part owned the horses they rode, and Grant readily assented to their retention, remarking that they would be needed for the spring plowing. By his orders rations were at once issued to the starving Confederate soldiers, and no firing of cannon, no playing of military bands, was permitted.

523. *The Last Scene.* When General Lee returned to his lines, and his soldiers, who had gotten wind of his sad mission

and its result, had gathered about him, "Men," said he to them, while the tears coursed down his cheeks, "we have fought through the war together; I have done my best for you. My heart is too full to say more." There was hardly a dry eye present. His veterans crowded about him, eager to grasp his hand or even to touch his clothes or his horse. The next day he set out for Richmond. There he was at once recognized, as he rode along the street on his way to his residence. Federal veterans joined with hearty enthusiasm in the popular tribute to the famous soldier. As the door of his home closed behind him, all felt that the war was indeed ended, now that the great Confederate champion was once more a private citizen.[1]

Confederate Soldier

The Confederate force which surrendered at Appomattox with arms in their hands did not exceed 10,000 men. The arrival of stragglers swelled the number of those paroled to 28,356.

524. Surrender of the Confederate Forces. On April 26 Johnston surrendered to Sherman. In May General Kirby Smith, in command of the department west of the Mississippi River, and General Taylor, in command of the department east, laid down their arms.

525. Cost of the War in Men and Money. From first to last the number of Confederate soldiers in active service had not exceeded 800,000, while the Federal soldiers engaged numbered

[1] In August, 1865, General Lee was elected to the presidency of Washington College (now Washington and Lee University), situated at Lexington, Virginia. In 1869 his health began to decline. One year later he passed away, his mind in its last delirium engaged with memories of those fields of battle on which he won such fame. He was buried at Lexington.

2,200,000. At least 1,000,000 men on both sides had perished by disease or the sword. In January, 1865, the numerical proportion between the Federal and Confederate troops was as ten to two.

In August, 1865, the public debt of the United States had grown to the stupendous figure of $2,845,000,000. The South had lost in slaves alone $2,000,000,000. All its investments in bank stock and Confederate bonds had been dissipated; all of its crops and most of its live stock had been consumed; its railroads were bankrupt. Add to these losses and to the Federal debt, the expenses incurred by municipal or State governments on both sides, and also by the Confederate government itself — and further the vast pecuniary damage inflicted by the Confederate cruisers — and it will not be overstating the cost of the war to say that it fell little short of $10,000,000,000.

Monument to Confederate Dead, Richmond

526. Assassination of Lincoln. On April 14 Lincoln was assassinated at Washington, while present at a performance at Ford's Theater. John Wilkes Booth, a crazed enthusiast, entered from behind the box in which the President was sitting, cowardly shot him in the back of the head, and then leaped to the stage, with the shout *Sic semper tyrannis* on his lips. As he struck the flooring, he broke his leg, but, in spite of this accident, was

able to mount his horse and escape. Lincoln died the following morning. Seward, who was sick in bed, was attacked with a dagger by an accomplice of Booth, but escaped with his life. Booth fled to Virginia, and there, while resting in a barn, was overtaken by his pursuers, and shot down through an opening in the boards. Lincoln's body was buried at Springfield, Illinois, after passing through New York, Albany, and Buffalo, where it was received by vast multitudes of people with every manifestation of respect and sorrow. All thoughtful persons in the South deeply lamented his atrocious murder.

527. Davis Captured and Imprisoned. Davis, though not deprived of life like Lincoln, was in his turn to become a victim of the violent passions of the hour. After the surrender at Appomattox, he determined to join General Kirby Smith beyond the Mississippi. In Georgia he overtook the party escorting his wife and children toward the coast. Unexpectedly at night the camp was surrounded by a body of Federal soldiers (May 10) and Davis was captured. He was carried to Fort Monroe, and there, in a small cell, was shut up during a period of two years. At first, neither books nor papers were allowed him, and at one time his ankles were manacled, but the rigor of his imprisonment was gradually relaxed.

528. *He was finally removed* from his cell to Richmond, was there indicted for treason and bailed,— Horace Greeley and Gerrit Smith, two Abolition leaders, being among his bondsmen,— but was never brought to actual trial. The charge of treason was dropped. He passed the last years of his life among the Southern people, who held him in honor and veneration for his unwavering constancy to the memory of the Confederacy. He died in New Orleans in 1889, and his body was finally buried in Richmond.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD VII

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—DISUNION.

1861

I. Inauguration of Lincoln.

II. Military Events in the East.
1. Fall of Fort Sumter.
2. Campaigns in Virginia.
   1. Battle of Big Bethel.
   2. In Western Virginia.
   3. Battle of Manassas.
   4. Battle of Balls Bluff.
3. Mason and Slidell captured and released.

III. Military Events in the West.
1. Campaign in Missouri.
   1. Federals strengthen Arsenal at St. Louis.
   2. Battle of Carthage.
   3. Battle of Oak Hills.
   4. Battle of Lexington.
2. Line of Confederate fortified Posts across Kentucky.

IV. Naval Events.
1. Attack on Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal.

1862

I. Military Events in the West.
1. Federal Invasion.
   1. Battle of Mill Springs.
   2. Forts Henry and Donelson.
   3. Battle of Pea Ridge.
   4. Battle of Shiloh.
   5. Capture of New Orleans.
   6. Capture of Memphis.
2. Bragg's Kentucky Campaign.
   1. Smith's Victory at Richmond.
   2. Battle of Perryville.
3. Battle of Iuka.
4. Battle of Corinth.
5. Battle of Murfreesboro.

II. Military Events in the East.
1. Peninsular Campaign—1st Part.
   1. McClellan at Fort Monroe.
   2. Evacuation of Yorktown.
   3. Battle of Williamsburg.
   4. Battle of Seven Pines.
   5. Lee takes Direct Command.
2. Jackson's Valley Campaign.
   1. Battle of Kernstown.
   2. Battle of McDowell.
   3. Battle of Front Royal.
   4. Battle of Cross Keys.
   5. Battle of Port Republic.
3. Peninsular Campaign—2d Part.
   1. Battle of Mechanicsville.
   2. Battle of Gaines Mill.
   3. Battle of Cold Harbor.
   4. Battle of White Oak Swamp.
   5. Battle of Fraziers Farm.
   6. Battle of Malvern Hill.
4. Second Battle of Manassas or Bull Run.
5. Lee's First Invasion of the North.
   1. Capture of Harpers Ferry.
   2. Battle of Boonesboro.
   3. Battle of Sharpsburg.
6. Battle of Fredericksburg.

III. Naval Events.
1. *Virginia* and *Monitor* fight.
2. Blockade of Atlantic Coast.
3. Ravages of the *Alabama* and the *Florida*.

1863

I. Emancipation Proclamation.

II. Civil Events.
1. Federal Greenbacks, Banknotes, and Taxes.
2. Depreciation of Confederate Currency.
3. Condition of North and South.
4. West Virginia admitted to the Union.

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION — DISUNION.

1863

III. Military Events in the East.
- 1. Charleston, S.C., successfully defended.
- 2. Chancellorsville Camp'n.
  - 1. Lee defeats Hooker.
  - 2. Lee defeats Sedgwick.
  - 3. Death of Jackson.
- 3. Lee's Second Invasion of the North.
  - 1. Battle of Brandy Station.
  - 2. Battle of Winchester.
  - 3. Battle of Gettysburg.

IV. Military Events in the West.
- 1. Galveston captured.
- 2. Fall of Vicksburg.
- 3. Battles around Chattanooga.
  - 1. Battle of Chickamauga.
  - 2. Battle of Missionary Ridge.
- 4. Relief of Burnside at Knoxville.

1864

I. Military Events in the East.
- 1. Battle of Olustee.
- 2. Grant's first Virginia Campaign.
  - 1. Battles of the Wilderness.
  - 2. Battle of Spottsylvania C. H.
  - 3. Battle of Cold Harbor.
  - 4. Battle of Yellow Tavern.
- 3. Butler's Expedition against Petersburg.
- 4. Battle of New Market.
- 5. Siege of Petersburg.
- 6. Early's Valley Campaign.
  - 1. Battle of Monocacy.
  - 2. Battle of Winchester.
  - 3. Battle of Cedar Creek.

II. Military Events in the West.
- 1. Banks's Expedition.
  - 1. Fort de Russy captured.
  - 2. Battle of Mansfield.
  - 3. Battle of Pleasant Hill.
- 2. Battle of Jenkins Ferry.
- 3. Defense and Surrender of Atlanta.
  - 1. Battle of Resaca.
  - 2. Battle of New Hope Church.
  - 3. Battle of Kenesaw Mountain.
  - 4. Battles around City.
  - 5. City surrenders.
- 4. Hood marches North.
  - 1. Battle of Franklin.
  - 2. Battle of Nashville.
- 5. Sherman's March to the Sea.

III. Naval Events.
- 1. Coast Operations.
  - 1. Fort Fisher bombarded.
  - 2. Mobile Harbor captured.
- 2. *Alabama* sunk.

IV. Civil Events.
- 1. Nevada admitted to the Union.
- 2. Reëlection of Lincoln.

1865

I. Military Events in the Carolinas.
- 1. Fall of Fort Fisher.
- 2. Wilmington captured.
- 3. Charleston captured.
- 4. Sherman in the Carolinas.
  - 1. Devastation of S.C.
  - 2. Burning of Columbia.
  - 3. Battle of Averysboro.
  - 4. Battle of Bentonville.
  - 5. Surrender of Johnston.

II. Military Events in Virginia.
- 1. Defense of Petersburg and Richmond.
  - 1. Attack on Fort Stedman.
  - 2. Battle of Five Forks.
  - 3. Petersburg and Richmond evacuated.
- 2. Lee's Retreat.
  - 1. No Supplies at Amelia C. H.
  - 2. Battle of Sailors Creek.
  - 3. Lee's Surrender.

III. Jefferson Davis captured and imprisoned.

IV. Cost of the War.

V. Assassination of Lincoln.

PERIOD VIII. UNDER THE CONSTITUTION — RECONSTRUCTION

Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869[1]

529. President and Congress Differ. *Johnson's Policy.* Andrew Johnson succeeded to the presidency on the death of Lincoln. His first step was, by proclamation, to grant all the States lately at war with the United States the authority to hold conventions at the call of the provisional governors he had appointed; and as each convention repealed its State's ordinance of secession, repudiated the Confederate debt, and ratified the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which abolished slavery (December, 1865), the government of that State was recognized by the Federal authorities. Peace reigned from border to border, and life, liberty, and property were never more fully protected. Had the President's policy — which was sub-

Andrew Johnson

[1] Andrew Johnson was born in North Carolina in 1808, and died in 1875. He became a citizen of Tennessee in 1826. At the age of ten he was apprenticed to a tailor, and it was not until he found a teacher in his wife, that he learned to read and write with ease. A man of extraordinary energy and of great natural ability, he soon became active and prominent in local political life. In the interval between 1843 and 1853 he occupied, as a Democrat, a seat in Congress, and was elected governor of Tennessee in 1853. From 1857 to 1862

stantially that Lincoln had acted upon before his death — been permitted to go on, to be followed by a gradual extension of the suffrage to the negroes as they became fitted for it, the South might have been saved the indescribable blight which fell upon all its interests after the passage of the Acts of Reconstruction.

530. *Policy of Congress.* When Congress assembled in December, 1865, it was seen that its views were not in harmony with Johnson's. It promptly adopted a resolution to the effect that the seceding States had forfeited all right to national representation and popular government, and that Congress alone had the power to lay down the conditions on which they should be restored to the Union. A struggle with the President at once began, which grew more and more bitter. Johnson promptly vetoed (1) the Freedmen's Bureau Bill, providing for destitute Southern negroes, and allowing them to rent deserted and confiscated Southern lands; (2) the Civil Rights Bill, which guaranteed to the freedman protection in the enjoyment of his new privileges. These measures were made laws over the President's veto by an affirmative vote of two thirds of the members of Congress.

531. Reconstruction Acts. *Fourteenth Amendment.* In spite of the President's emphatic disapproval, Congress now framed a Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which gave the negroes, as natives of the United States, the character

he was a member of the United States Senate, and not being in sympathy with the people of the South, declined to withdraw when Tennessee seceded. As soon as that State passed into the possession of the Federal armies, he was appointed its first military governor. He was nominated on the same ticket as Lincoln, not because he was a Republican, for he had always professed to be a Union Democrat, but because the Republican party were anxious to show favor to that body of men in the Southern States who had supported the Federal side in the war. Johnson was tactless, stubborn, rash, and aggressive, but honest and true to his convictions, at the cost of life itself, if necessary.

of citizens, while it took away from all white men in the South, who had borne a part "in insurrection or rebellion" the right to hold office. Congress made the adoption of this amendment the condition of readmission to the Union for the late Confederate States. When that body came together in December, 1866, it was found that all these States except Tennessee had rejected the amendment. At once Congress by the First Act of Reconstruction, which was passed over the President's veto, uprooted their governments, and divided the States themselves into five military districts.

532. *The Second Act of Reconstruction,* passed in the following March, laid down the conditions to which the reorganization of the new State governments would be subject. In choosing delegates to the conventions to be called together to frame the State constitutions, and also delegates to the legislatures to assemble later, it was provided (1) that every black freedman was to enjoy the right to vote; (2) that this right was to be taken from every white man who was unable to swear that he had never borne arms against the United States. This was known as the "ironclad oath," and it virtually placed the South in the power of the late slaves, necessarily the most ignorant and most inexperienced persons in the community.

533. Carpetbaggers and Scalawags. There now appeared two new classes of white officeholders who, playing upon the African's fears and cupidity, were to prove the greatest scourge that has ever afflicted any American commonwealth: first the "carpetbagger," a white man from the North, who, scenting in his distant home the political corruption in the South, had come down like an ill-omened bird to batten on the spoil; secondly, the "scalawag," the supple native, who under the pretense of "accepting the situation" had gone over to the party of the late slaves, and used his superior intelligence

for his own political advancement and pecuniary enrichment. By 1868, the new electorate had adopted the Fourteenth Amendment in the States of Arkansas, the Carolinas, Florida, Alabama, and Louisiana. Virginia, Texas, Mississippi, and Georgia declined to ratify, preferring to remain under the control of military governors. It was not until 1870 that they were admitted.

534. Impeachment of Johnson. In 1867 a bill was passed by Congress forbidding the President to remove any official of the government without the consent of the Senate. The Republican party was afraid lest Johnson would use this means of obstructing the Reconstruction Measures. Deeply offended by the insubordination of Stanton, the Secretary of War, the President removed him from office and finally appointed General Lorenzo Thomas in his place in spite of the disapproval of the Senate. The Republican leaders, who were more embittered than ever against Johnson, took this as an infraction of the Tenure of Office Act and determined to impeach him. He was tried before the Senate, and acquitted by one vote. Stanton then resigned his office.

Gold Mining, Alaska

535. In 1867 Alaska, nearly 600,000 square miles in area, with a sparse population of Indians and Eskimos, and a few settlements of whites, was bought from Russia for $7,200,000.

At the time of its purchase it was thought to be valuable only for its furs, fisheries, and timber, but it has been found to contain beneath its surface some of the richest deposits of gold in the world.

536. Foreign Affairs. *Treaty with China.* In 1868 an imposing embassy from China reached Washington accompanied by Mr. Burlingame, the American Minister to that country. A treaty was soon arranged by which the United States secured concessions in trade in that empire which have already greatly added to the national wealth.

537. *French in Mexico.* In 1861 Napoleon III, as the representative of France, had, together with England and Spain, sent troops to Mexico to compel the payment of debts due those nations by that country. England and Spain withdrew, but Napoleon, subverting the existing government, placed on the throne he created in its stead, Maximilian of Austria, and supported him with a strong army. The United States protested against this act, as a violation of the Monroe Doctrine (§ 352), but was too much involved in war at the time to enforce its demand for an early evacuation of the country. When the Confederacy fell, Federal soldiers were massed on the frontier, and the French emperor was warned to embark his troops. As soon as these troops retired from the country (1867), Maximilian's empire was overthrown by the Mexicans, and Maximilian himself was seized and shot.

538. Election of Grant. In November, 1868, General Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax were the Republican candidates for the presidency and vice presidency respectively. The Democratic candidates were Horatio Seymour and F. P. Blair. Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas were not allowed to vote as their reconstruction was not yet complete. Grant and Colfax were elected on a platform warmly approving the Reconstruction Acts.

Grant's Administration, 1869–1877 [1]

539. Fifteenth Amendment. It has already been seen that, by the terms of the Fourteenth Amendment, the negro had become a citizen. It was now decided by the Republican party that a Fifteenth was necessary to prevent the abridgment of his right to vote. No man, the new amendment declared, should be deprived of the right of suffrage on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." That the negro alone was considered in this provision, was shown in the refusal of the courts to admit the Chinese to the privileges of voters.

Ulysses S. Grant

540. Ku Klux Klan. Loyal Leagues were soon formed in all parts of the South by the freedmen and their white leaders. They held their meetings at night in the forest, and the intemperate harangues and

[1] Ulysses S. Grant was born in Ohio in 1822, and died at Mount McGregor, New York, in 1885. At the age of seventeen he was appointed to a cadetship at West Point Academy, and graduated as number twenty-one in a class of thirty-nine. He was advanced to a captaincy in the Mexican War, as a reward for conspicuous gallantry. Resigning from the army at a later day, he became his father's partner in a tannery at Galena, Illinois. On the breaking out of hostilities between the States he raised a company of volunteers, and in August, 1861, was promoted to a generalship. His career from this time to the end of the war, has been already given in our history of its events. After the close of his second term of the presidential office he made a tour of the world, and everywhere was received with extraordinary honors. In character Grant was unpretending, reticent, tenacious, inflexible, truthful, and magnanimous. His reputation would be greater, if it were military alone. He was unfitted for civil life, especially during a period in which self-seeking knaves were active in striving to mold the most honest executives to their own purposes. His last days, during which he suffered from a cruel disease, were marked by a heroic fortitude, and his last words, in the spirit of his famous utterance as President, "Let us have peace," were all directed to bring about greater harmony, friendship, and sympathy between the Northern and Southern people.

wild threats made on those occasions had the effect of inciting the negroes to many lawless acts. The number of murders, arsons, and robberies increased with appalling rapidity. It was impossible for the white people to punish the crimes of the blacks and their white leaders in open arms. Secret societies were quietly organized, as offering the only hope of accomplishing that end. In the beginning, the main purposes of these societies were to protect the white women from assault; to put a stop to the destruction of property; to force the blacks to work; to temper their insolence; and finally, to cut down the majorities, the real cause of these frightful troubles. The secret societies were known as the Ku Klux Klan. As time went on, the Klan lost some of its original motives, and descended to acts of unjustifiable violence. The reputable class of whites withdrew from it, and sought to effect the same end by other means, which now had more chance of success.[1]

541. Oppressive Taxation. Taxes were, at this time, imposed on the white people, the only owners of property, by the legislatures of negroes and their white associates, which they could not have borne in the most prosperous days during the period of slavery. In the course of ten years, the public debt of the Southern States rose enormously, and the largest part of this sum found its way into the pockets of the corrupt politicians.

542. Whites recover Control. But for the constant interposition of President Grant with troops, the whole of the South

[1] In recent years negro suffrage has been greatly reduced by the South's adoption of constitutional provisions, which the Federal courts have decided are not opposed to the Fifteenth Amendment. Illiteracy and failure to pay taxes are the chief grounds of exclusion. In some States the voter is required to be able to read or write any section of the Constitution; in others he is only required to be able to interpret it. In Louisiana there is in addition a property qualification. These provisions place the negroes at the greater disadvantage owing to the greater illiteracy and poverty of the race.

would, before the end of his first term, have passed under the rule of the white population. Any marked success on their part, however, was the signal for the local Republicans to clamor for Federal assistance; and for a time the Republican State governments were kept in power at the point of the bayonet. As soon as the bayonet was withdrawn, these governments would

Battle of Little Big Horn River

be overthrown, and the white people would set up governments of their own. Not infrequently, as in Louisiana in 1873, there were rival administrations in operation at the same time. A Force Bill was passed in 1871, which in its practical operation placed all national elections under the control of Federal officials, supported by the regular army. In spite of these obstacles, when Grant's second term drew to a close, all the Southern States, except Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina, had passed into the hands of the whites.

543. Indian Uprisings. The administration of President Grant was marked by two important uprisings among the Indians. The Modocs had been removed from their hunting grounds in southern Oregon, but on the first opportunity returned. Driven into the lava beds of northern California, they were, in 1873, finally conquered and sent to a reservation in Dakota, but only after they had murdered General Canby at a peace conference. A few years later (1876) General Custer, with his entire cavalry troop, fell in the battle of the Little Big Horn River, fought with the Sioux Indians, who had been stirred up to war by the encroachments of the whites among the gold fields of the Black Hills in southern Dakota.

544. Chicago and Boston Fires. In 1871 Chicago was almost completely wiped out by fire; 100,000 people were rendered homeless and $200,000,000 worth of property burnt up. At the end of two years the destroyed portions of the city, which covered several square miles, were rebuilt. In 1872 Boston was visited by a fire which laid in ashes the finest business part of the city, covering an area of sixty acres.

545. Centennial Exposition. In 1876 an exposition was held at Philadelphia to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. The largest of the buildings spread over twenty acres. The Exposition cost $8,000,000, and about 10,000,000 people visited it. The occasion was made notable by the first reunion of Northern and Southern troops.

546. Finances. *Black Friday.* In the course of the autumn of 1869 a great panic occurred in the gold market of New York City, which came to a head, on September 24, in what is known as Black Friday. Unscrupulous speculators had been quietly buying up all the gold in circulation, with a view of forcing up its value by making it scarce, which would leave them an enormous margin of profit in sales to merchants, among others, who were compelled to have it in carrying on

their foreign trade. The tension of the situation was only relieved by the government offering for sale, to those who needed it, $4,000,000 in gold out of the public treasury. This broke the monopoly of the conspirators. In 1873 the fluctuations in the value of the currency and the reckless spirit of railway building brought on a second panic.

547. *Specie Payments.* When the greenback, a mere promise of the government to pay in coin as soon as it was able, was first issued, to aid in the prosecution of the war, its purchasing power, as compared with that of gold and silver, was less than its nominal value. The government, at this time, had too small an amount of the precious metals to allow it to redeem in coin every paper dollar brought to the Treasury by persons wishing to exchange it in that form. The value of the enormous quantities of greenbacks put in circulation rested upon the national credit alone, which was greatly shaken by the disasters of the war (§ 485), and was not entirely restored until 1875, when the government, now richer in gold and silver, declared that, after January 1, 1879, every paper dollar could be redeemed at the public treasury in coin, according to its face value. Greenbacks at once rose in purchasing power, and on January 1, 1879, they reached the figure they had previously only nominally represented.

548. Alabama Claims. In 1871, commissioners of the United States and Great Britain met in Washington, and drafted a treaty settling all points in dispute between the two countries. The most important one was what was known as the Alabama Claims. The United States took the ground that Great Britain should pay for all the damage done by the Confederate cruisers built or fitted out in British ports. The most destructive was the *Alabama*, which gave its name to the claims. A Board of Arbitration sitting at Geneva, Switzerland, in which not only the United States and Great Britain, but

also Italy, Brazil, and Switzerland were represented, awarded $15,500,000 to the United States for distribution among the persons upon whom the losses had fallen.

549. Liberal Republicans. When the last year of Grant's first term came around there was a strong opposition in his own party to his renomination, on the ground (1) of the corruption which had marked his administration, though not himself personally; (2) the unconstitutionality of his course in sustaining the mongrel State governments in the South by the power of the Federal bayonet. There was now a growing sentiment at the North in favor of allowing these governments to sink, if unable themselves to maintain their position. The section of the Republican party which held these opinions organized and called a convention, which met at Cincinnati and nominated Horace Greeley, of New York, for the presidency, and B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for the vice presidency. The Democrats adopted these nominees as their candidates. The regular Republican party nominated for the same offices, General Grant, and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, who were elected.

550. Electoral Commission. *Disputed Election Returns.* Toward the close of General Grant's second term, the Republican party nominated for the presidency and the vice presidency, Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, respectively, and for the same offices, the Democratic party nominated Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. As there were 369 electoral votes, 185 were necessary for a choice. In the election Tilden and Hendricks obtained one hundred and eighty-four votes which were not disputed. In Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina (and partially also in Oregon)

Samuel J. Tilden

the Democrats claimed to have been successful, and certificates to that effect were forwarded to Washington, but the Republican State Returning Boards gave certificates to the Republican candidates. This assured for Hayes and Wheeler a majority of one in the total electoral vote for the presidency and vice presidency. The legality of this was warmly disputed in Congress by the Democrats, and it soon began to look as if the United States would have two rival national administrations.

551. Election of Hayes. A Joint Electoral Commission was now proposed as a means of overcoming the perilous difficulty. It was to be composed of fifteen members — five senators, five representatives, and five judges of the Supreme Court. Congress appointed seven Democrats and seven Republicans. The fifteenth man, to be chosen by the four justices already appointed, was expected to be Justice Davis, who was an Independent. But Davis having been elected to the Senate, Justice Bradley, a Republican, was chosen. The Electoral Commission, by a vote of eight to seven, decided each contest in favor of the Republicans. Hayes was therefore declared to be elected by a vote of 185 to 184.

552. Consequences of the Controversy. One of the most striking consequences of this heated controversy over the presidency was the rapid growth of a sentiment among Northern citizens hostile to the further maintenance, by the bayonet, of the Republican administrations in the South. It was seen only too clearly by them that the corruption of these administrations had extended its baneful influence to the operations of the national government, and that it would in the end bring civil strife on the whole people if not removed in time. The Federal troops were withdrawn from Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina, and the political control of these States, shortly thereafter, passed into the hands of the white people. The era of Reconstruction had closed in dismal failure.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD VIII

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION — RECONSTRUCTION.

- I. Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869.
  - 1. President's Southern Policy.
    1. Provisional Governors.
    2. State Conventions authorized.
    3. These Conventions required to adopt Certain Measures.
    4. State Governments recognized by Federal Authorities.
    5. No Negro Voters.
  - 2. Congress's Southern Policy.
    1. Freedmen's Bureau Bill.
    2. Civil Rights Bill.
    3. Fourteenth Amendment.
    4. Adoption of Amendment a Condition of Readmission.
    5. Acts of Reconstruction.
    6. Negro Voters.
  - 3. Struggle between President and Congress.
    1. President's Vetoes passed over.
    2. Tenure of Office Act.
    3. Impeachment.
  - 4. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Alaska purchased.
    2. Chinese Treaty.
    3. Napoleon III ordered out of Mexico.
- II. Grant's Administration, 1869–1877.
  - 1. Condition of the South.
    1. Fifteenth Amendment.
    2. The Loyal Leagues.
    3. Whites form Secret Societies.
    4. Stealing of Public Funds.
    5. Republican State Governments supported by Bayonets.
    6. Federal Supervision of Elections.
    7. Whites regain control of South.
  - 2. Uprising of Modocs and Sioux.
  - 3. Great Fires at Chicago and Boston.
  - 4. Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia.
  - 5. Financial Affairs.
    1. Black Friday.
    2. Panic of 1873.
    3. Promise of Specie Payments.
  - 6. Settlement of Alabama Claims by Arbitration.
  - 7. Rise of Liberal Republicans.
    1. Corruption at Washington.
    2. President's Unconstitutional Course in the South.
  - 8. Electoral Commission.

PERIOD IX. UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—REUNION

Hayes's Administration, 1877–1881[1]

553. Railroad Strike. In 1877 railroad earnings having fallen off, the managers of many lines decided to cut down wages. A reduction made by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was followed by a strike among its employees which soon spread to other roads. So great was the destruction in cars, engines, station houses, and freight, which took place at many points, that both the local militia and Federal troops were called out to put down the rioters and restore order.

Rutherford B. Hayes

554. Among the other events of importance during this administration were (1) the yellow fever epidemic in 1878, in the Mississippi Valley, in the course of which about 15,000 people died; (2) the placing of jetties in the mouth of

[1] Rutherford B. Hayes was born in Ohio in 1822, and died in 1893. He was a lawyer by profession and during the War of Secession rose to the position of brigadier general of volunteers. At the close of hostilities he was elected to Congress, was a member during one term, and was thrice elected governor of Ohio. He was nominated for the presidency as a compromise candidate. Although his name will probably be somewhat clouded by the peculiar circumstances of his election, he will be known in history as a man of upright character, whose administration was pure and dignified, and especially memorable as having inaugurated the era of genuine reunion.

the Mississippi, in order to insure deeper water for the passage of the largest steamers; (3) the capture of Joseph, chief of the Nez Percés Indians of Idaho, after a remarkable retreat.

555. Practical Inventions. This administration was also memorable for the number of mechanical contrivances first brought to bear to promote the comfort and convenience of life. The telephone and electric light and also the passenger elevator soon came into general use. The phonograph was invented and many improvements were made in photography. There was also a great improvement in the speed of city travel by means of cable cars and elevated and electric railways. The bicycle also became popular.

556. The price of silver as compared with that of gold was now steadily declining in all parts of the world. In 1873 Congress had passed an act stopping the further coinage of the silver dollar and declaring that it should no longer be a legal tender; in other words, money which must be accepted in settlement of debts. Five years later Mr. Bland, of Missouri, introduced in the House of Representatives a bill requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to coin into dollars all the silver bullion which should be brought to the Treasury, however great the quantity, and without cost to the bringer. This is known as "the free and unlimited coinage of silver." It was further provided that as many dollars should be coined out of sixteen pounds of silver as out of one pound of gold. This is what is meant by the "ratio of 16 to 1." When the bill reached the Senate, it was amended at the instance of Senator Allison, and, as passed, provided that the government should purchase each month at the market rate not less than $2,000,000 nor more than $4,000,000 worth of silver bullion and coin it into dollars at the ratio of 16 to 1. It made the silver dollar again legal tender. This is called the Bland-Allison Act.

557. Specie payments were resumed in 1879. So high was the credit of the government, in consequence, that it negotiated without difficulty the sale of an enormous number of new bonds at a low rate of interest, and with the proceeds took up the old bonds, which had been issued at a time when the government was compelled to pay a high rate of interest. The national debt was about $2,000,000.

558. Election of Garfield. In the election of 1880 James A. Garfield, of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, Republicans, were the successful candidates for the presidency and vice presidency. The candidates of the Democrats were General Winfield S. Hancock, and William H. English.

Garfield and Arthur's Administration, 1881–1885[1]

559. Garfield Assassinated. Garfield had been in office but a short time when he made a nomination to fill the collectorship of the port of New York City, which aroused the strong opposition of Conkling and Platt, senators from the State. These senators belonged to what was known as the "Stalwart" wing of the Republican party, which had supported General Grant for a third term. The action of the President greatly widened the breach in the party, and led to his assassination. On July 2, as he entered the station, at Washington, of the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad, he was shot and mortally wounded by a miscreant, who pretended that he was

James A. Garfield

[1] James A. Garfield was born in Ohio in 1831, and died in 1881. He was the son of a small farmer, and only with difficulty obtained an education. He graduated from Williams College; became a professor in Hiram College;

only seeking to heal the differences in the Republican party by the "removal" of the President. Garfield lingered until September 19, when he was succeeded by Vice President Arthur.

Chester A. Arthur

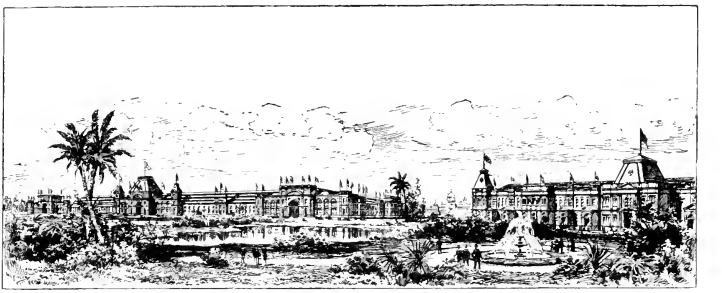
560. Civil Service Act and Other Events. The public shock which followed the assassination of President Garfield by a worthless office seeker led to the adoption, in 1883, of a Civil Service Act, making the appointment of certain classes of office-holders dependent upon success in previous examinations. The number of these classes was greatly enlarged during later administrations. Among other events of importance during Arthur's administration were (1) the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown; (2) a succession of great floods in the Mississippi River; (3) the reduction of postage on letters to two cents an ounce.

561. Southern Industrial Progress. Although only a short time had passed since the collapse of the Reconstruction governments, the progress which the Southern people were making under white supremacy was extraordinary. The volume of the

studied law; and when the war came on entered the army, and was soon promoted to the rank of major general. Elected to Congress while in military service, he continued a leading member of the House during a period of eighteen years. He had only recently been advanced to a seat in the Senate when he was elected to the presidency.

Chester A. Arthur, who, as Vice President, succeeded to the presidency on the death of Garfield, was born in Vermont, in 1830, and died in New York in 1886. In early life he taught school, and then became a lawyer. During the War of Secession he filled the position of quartermaster general of New York State; and at a later period was appointed to the office of collector of the port of New York City, through the influence of Senator Conkling. His nomination as Vice President was due to his affiliation with the "Stalwart" wing of the Republican party, a wing which, after the nomination of Garfield for the presidency, it was important for the convention to conciliate.

cotton crop surpassed all previous records; railways were in the course of construction in every direction; mines were opening and factories building. A Cotton Exposition held at Atlanta in 1881 and a World's Exposition at New Orleans in 1884 and 1885 showed the confidence of the South in inviting the attention of all nations to its material achievements.



World's Exposition Buildings, New Orleans

562. Capitalists and Corporations. The extraordinary impulse given to every branch of business by new adaptations of natural forces and the use of new inventions — the rapid opening up of every avenue to wealth which the vast natural resources of the country offered — made men more impatient than ever of every influence that impeded the accumulation of fortune. In order to save expenses and diminish or destroy competition individuals and companies engaged in the same line of business now began to unite and combine in powerful corporations with enormous capital at their disposal. This tendency of trade was already shown in the existence of some of the greatest corporations ever organized in the United States — notably the Standard Oil Company. These mighty combinations of capital, which have steadily grown in number, have come to be known as "Trusts." A loud outcry was raised against the great corporations during this administration, on the ground that they used

their money to bribe legislatures in order to secure improper privileges; that they fixed prices to the injury of the community; and that they imported cheap labor from abroad to increase their profits.

563. Election of Cleveland. An Anti-Monopoly party sprang up, which demanded that the government should regulate interstate commerce, which meant the control of all telegraphs and railroads; and that it should prevent the further importation of foreign laborers under contract to do special work. Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, was nominated for the presidency by this party, and he was also accepted by the Greenback party as their candidate. Grover Cleveland, governor of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, were the nominees of the Democratic party for the presidency and vice presidency respectively; James G. Blaine, of Maine, and General John A. Logan, of Illinois, of the Republican party. Cleveland and Hendricks were elected, largely by the vote of Republicans known as Mugwumps, who declined to support Blaine.

Cleveland's First Administration, 1885–1889[1]

564. "Knights of Labor." An organization had been formed by large bodies of laboring men in different parts of the United States, known as the "Knights of Labor," whose object was to

[1] Grover Cleveland was born in New Jersey in 1837, but in 1841 removed with his parents to New York State. He received his education in the public schools, and during some time was a teacher in an institute for the blind. At the age of eighteen he began the study of law at Buffalo and became the sheriff of that city in 1870 and the mayor in 1882. He was so successful while occupying the latter office in reforming abuses that he was nominated for the governorship of the State and was elected by an unprecedented plurality. In every position he held he acted upon the principles that a "public office is a public trust" and that "he serves his party best who serves his country best." A man of inflexible will, indomitable courage, and rugged honesty, he always "pursued the right and scorned the expedient," and in doing so obtained a hold upon the confidence and respect of the masses of his countrymen which could not be shaken by the attacks of political enemies or the criticisms of political associates.

unite all workingmen in one body to enable them the more successfully to resist the supposed encroachments of capitalists and corporations (§ 562). In 1886 the Knights demanded that either the hours of labor should be shortened or wages should be increased. This demand being refused, a strike began among the employees of the street railways in New York, and, spreading to all the great cities, soon involved the principal steam railways. It resulted in an enormous destruction of property.

Grover Cleveland

565. Chicago Anarchists. In May, 1886, the anarchists of Chicago, whose main principle of action was opposition to all forms of government, held a great meeting in that city, in the course of which the most atrocious sentiments were proclaimed. A body of policemen rushed upon the crowd and endeavored to disperse it. Suddenly dynamite bombs were hurled in their midst, causing the death of seven of their number and severely wounding sixty others. In spite of this terrible incident, the brave policemen compelled the cowardly multitude to take to their heels. A number of the anarchists were arrested, and several, after trial, were hanged.

566. Additions to Navy. The building of the new American navy was pushed forward with energy under this administration. The need of a greater number of vessels seemed to be shown by (1) the commencement of work on the Panama Canal by a French company; (2) the dispute with Great Britain as to the American right to buy ice and fish bait in Canadian ports; (3) a controversy with Germany over the possession of Samoa.

567. Important Acts of Congress passed during this administration were those (1) creating a commission to supervise trans-

portation rates on interstate lines of railway; (2) prohibiting further Chinese immigration, and also prohibiting the bringing in of laborers under previous contracts with them to work in this country; (3) regulating the succession to the presidency in case both the President and Vice President shall die, be impeached and removed, or become disabled during their terms of office. Under this new law, the office passes first to the Secretary of State and then to the other members of the Cabinet in the order of the establishment of their departments.[1]

568. Election of Harrison. The surplus revenue in the Treasury was now so great that it was a constant menace to the business of the country as long as it remained there; but if dispersed by appropriations, a spirit of national extravagance was certain to be encouraged. In December, 1887, the President, in his annual message, dwelt upon this subject almost exclusively, and earnestly advised that the tariff rates should be lowered. At once the question became the point at issue between the two parties. Cleveland was renominated for the presidency on a platform favoring the reduction of the import duties to the basis of the expenses of the government, but was defeated by Benjamin Harrison, the Republican candidate, who favored the retention of the existing tariff. Levi P. Morton, of New York, was elected Vice President.

Benjamin Harrison's Administration, 1889–1893[2]

569. Foreign Affairs. *Important Events.* The relations of the United States with foreign nations during this administration were marked by several events of importance: (1) the

[1] Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney General, Postmaster General, Secretary of the Navy, and Secretary of the Interior. The Departments of Agriculture and of Commerce and Labor were created after this law was passed.

[2] Benjamin Harrison was born in Ohio in 1833, and died in 1901. He was the great-grandson of the signer of the Declaration of Independence of the

passage of an international copyright law, which gives copyright protection to foreign authors of nations which afford like protection to American authors; (2) the decision of a board of arbitration, sitting at Paris, that the United States could not make a just claim to the sole jurisdiction in Bering Sea in connection with the seal fisheries; (3) the meeting of representatives of all the South American countries and the United States, in Washington, for the purpose of bringing about the construction of an international railway, the adoption of reciprocity treaties, and the formation of an international monetary union.

Benjamin Harrison

570. *New Orleans Mafia.* The relations of the United States with both Italy and Chile were at one time during this administration greatly strained. A branch of the Italian secret organization known as the Mafia existed in New Orleans. The activity of the chief of police of that city in ferreting out the crimes committed by this society led, in 1890, to his assassination. A jury, under the influence of bribes or fear, acquitted some of the men charged with the act and disagreed in the case of the rest. In their indignation over this verdict the citizens rose, took the prisoners out of jail, and hanged them. Italy demanded reparation, and friendly relations were restored with that country only on the payment of $25,000 to the heirs of the Italian citizens who had been lynched.

same name, and a grandson of President William Henry Harrison. He received his academic education at Miami College, and was admitted to the bar in Indianapolis. Entering the Federal army as a lieutenant at the breaking out of the war, he was promoted before its close to the rank of a brigadier general. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1880, where he exhibited the talents of an able and ready debater.

571. Trouble with Chile. In October, 1891, the United States ship *Baltimore* was lying in the harbor of Valparaiso, Chile, and some of her sailors obtained leave to go on shore. They soon became mixed up in a quarrel with the natives and an armed mob set on them, and killed and wounded several of them. Chile at first refused to pay an indemnity, but, when the United States showed a determination to go to war, yielded.

572. McKinley Act and Reciprocity. Their success in the presidential election led the Republican party to think that their tariff policy had the approval of the people. The members of that party soon passed a bill, known as the McKinley Act from the name of its author, increasing the duties on many imported goods and cutting down or abolishing the duties on others. The former were articles which came in competition with domestic production; the latter articles in lines of manufacture that were not yet established in the United States. The policy of protection had been a serious impediment to the sale of American manufactures in foreign countries, because the high tariff tended to prevent goods from those countries to be brought in in return. In order to obtain the trade of the South American republics, which, under existing conditions, went chiefly to England, the United States removed the duty on a number of articles, with the proviso that the free entry should be denied to countries imposing reciprocally unequal and unreasonable duties on American products.

573. Sherman Act. There were large numbers of people who were dissatisfied with the Bland-Allison Act, because it restricted the coinage of silver to a certain amount each month. In 1890 their representatives in Congress made a determined attempt to pass a law that would compel the Treasury to coin into dollars all silver bullion brought to it. In other words,

their object was to enact the Bland Bill without the Allison Amendment (§ 556). The House rejected the new bill, but by the Sherman Act it was provided that the amount of silver to be coined each month should be increased to 4,500,000 ounces. This metal was to be stored away in the Treasury vaults, but for every silver dollar represented in it a paper dollar was to be issued.

574. Election of Cleveland. In the presidential election of 1892 Mr. Cleveland, renominated by the Democrats for the third time, was successful over Benjamin Harrison, who had been named by the Republicans for a second term. General Weaver was the nominee of the People's party, which favored the free coinage of silver, the adoption of a general income tax, loans to farmers by the government, and State control of all railroads.

Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893–1897

575. Panic of 1893. When the second administration of Cleveland began, the country seemed to be enjoying a period of great prosperity. It was, however, only on the surface. Influences were at work which were soon to bring on a financial panic. The Secretary of the Treasury was forced to sell bonds in order to obtain the gold necessary for the redemption of all the greenbacks that might be presented at the Treasury. In expectation of such calls it was the rule to keep in the Treasury vaults at least $100,000,000 in gold. A fear arose that the Treasury would be unable to obtain gold enough for the redemption of all the paper money in circulation, and that it would have to use silver for that purpose. The silver in a dollar was now worth only 67 cents in gold, and it was feared that if debts were paid in silver, the creditors might lose 33 cents on every dollar. Foreigners, apprehen-

sive of such loss, began at once to sell their American stocks and bonds and ceased to invest in American securities. The Americans themselves began hoarding their gold and drawing their deposits out of the banks. This general lack of confidence led to great financial depression, in which large numbers of banks, companies, and individuals engaged in business failed.

576. Silver Clause of Sherman Act Repealed. *Wilson Tariff Act.* With the intention of doing away with what was supposed to be the chief cause of the prevailing depression, Congress met, in extra session, in August, 1893, and repealed the clause of the Sherman Act that required 4,500,000 ounces of silver to be coined each month. This step, however, did not bring about a revival of business. As the expenditures of the government rose the receipts fell, until at the end of the year there was a deficiency of $34,000,000. The country was in this condition when Congress reassembled in December, 1893. As soon as Congress met, the work of reforming the system of import duties began. The Wilson Bill, as the new tariff act was known from the name of its author, made numerous reductions in existing rates, especially in those which had been placed on raw materials used in American manufactures. The clause in the bill taxing all incomes in excess of $4000 was rejected as unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. The bill failed to afford the government the revenue it needed. The drain on the gold reserve of $100,000,000 in the Treasury went on, and, in order to maintain it, $262,000,000 had to be added to the bonded debt of the United States.

577. The World's Columbian Exposition. The gates of the great International Exposition, held at Chicago in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, were thrown open in May, 1893. The inauguration of the ex-

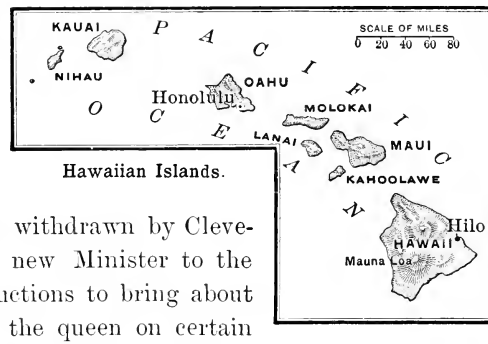
position began with the review, in Hampton Roads, of a great fleet of ironclads, belonging to the foremost powers of the world. In strange contrast with these modern vessels were the three wooden caravels in the same waters, built by Spain in exact imitation of the frail barks in which Columbus and his crew had crossed the ocean. The exposition was visited by 20,000,000 people, and cost over $30,000,000.

578. Increase in the Navy. During the second term of Cleveland there were numerous important additions to the navy of the United States. A great advance in fighting power and in rapidity of movement was now made in the construction of first-class battleships and armed cruisers.

579. Foreign Affairs. *Venezuelan Controversy.* A controversy had, for some time, been in progress between Venezuela and Great Britain as to the ownership of a strip of territory lying on the borders of Venezuela and British Guiana. The United States offered to serve as the arbitrator of the disputed claims, but its services were declined by Great Britain. The President sent a message to Congress, recommending that a commission should be appointed to find out what was the correct boundary line between the two countries with a view to upholding the Monroe Doctrine in case it should appear that Great Britain was seizing Venezuelan territory. The pacific attitude of Great Britain alone averted hostilities. The dispute was amicably settled in 1897.

580. Revolution in Hawaii. In January, 1893, Queen Liliuokalani (lee lee wo kah lah' nee), of the Hawaiian (hah wī' yan) Islands (map, p. 361), threatened to revoke the Constitution, and make the monarchy absolute. A revolution resulted — a provisional government was promptly set up, and royal rule in the Islands was declared to be forever abolished. A large body of marines was landed from an American man-of-war, stationed in the harbor of Honolulu, with the avowed intention of protect-

ing American citizens and property, but in reality to give support to the leaders of the movement, who, with hardly an exception, were of American birth or descent. In February, 1893, Minister Stevens raised the American flag, and publicly announced that the Islands were under the control of the United States. A treaty of annexation was submitted to the Senate by President Harrison, but in 1893, before it could be acted upon, it was withdrawn by Cleveland, who sent a new Minister to the Islands with instructions to bring about the restoration of the queen on certain conditions. As the President of the Hawaiian Republic refused to consent to this, the queen failed to recover her throne.



Hawaiian Islands.

581. Election of McKinley. In 1896, the Democratic party nominated William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, and Arthur Sewall, of Maine, for the presidency and vice presidency respectively. The Democratic platform called for the "free and unlimited coinage of silver" at the existing ratio of sixteen to one; that is, with sixteen times as much silver in a silver dollar as of gold in a gold dollar. A wing of the party, which favored the gold standard of value, nominated General John M. Palmer, of Illinois, and General Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for the the same offices. William McKinley, of Ohio, was the Republican and successful candidate, on a platform favoring, not only the gold standard, but also a high protective tariff. Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, was elected Vice President.

McKinley's Administration, 1897–1901[1]

582. Disorder in Cuba. The leading event of McKinley's administration was the war with Spain (1898). This grew out of the American opposition to the continuation of the lamentable condition of affairs in Cuba, in consequence of the savage manner in which Spain had attempted to put down the rebellion prevailing there for several years. Cleveland refused, so far as our country was concerned, to grant to the Cuban insurgents the rights of a people engaged in open war; but their cause had the moral support of the Americans, whose feeling of humanity was shocked, and whose material interests were greatly injured by the intestinal strife which had plunged the beautiful island into ruin and despair. Cleveland had appointed General Fitzhugh Lee consul general at Havana, and such were the courage, discretion, and ability he had shown in his difficult position that McKinley had retained him in office. General Lee and the vice consuls were very active in relieving the suffering which the people endured from exposure and famine,

William McKinley

[1] William McKinley was born in Ohio in January, 1843. He began active life as a school teacher; entered the Federal army as a private at the beginning of the war, and rose to the rank of major; studied law after the close of hostilities, and seven times in succession was elected to Congress. In 1890 he reported the tariff bill bearing his name, which gave him great prominence, and led eventually to his election to the presidency. In 1891 he was chosen governor of Ohio by a large majority of the popular vote. He was reëlected President in 1900, and was assassinated at Buffalo in September, 1901.

but in spite of their judicious use of the appropriation which Congress made for the purpose, the most appalling destitution prevailed, especially in the towns where the inhabitants had been herded together by the Spaniards, — places of "reconcentration," as they were termed, — among whom a frightful mortality prevailed.

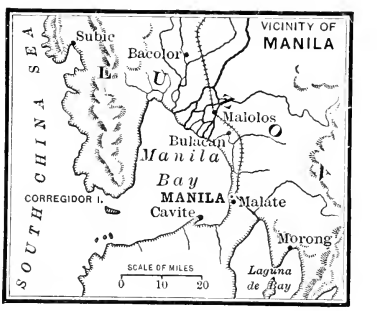
583. The "Maine" blown up. The situation became so critical in January, 1898, that, at the request of General Lee, the *Maine,* commanded by Captain C. D. Sigsbee, was ordered to the harbor of Havana. A private letter written to a friend by Señor Dupuy de Lome, the Spanish minister at Washington, in which he referred to McKinley in harsh terms, was obtained surreptitiously and published. The indignation which this letter caused in the United States had hardly subsided when, on February 15, 1898, the *Maine* was blown up, with the loss of two of her officers and two hundred and fifty-eight of her crew.

West Indies

584. Ultimatum to Spain. As it was generally believed that this explosion had been perpetrated by the Spaniards, all hope of a peaceable settlement of the difficulty disappeared. Congress appropriated $50,000,000 for national defense, and preparations for active hostilities at once began. A Board which had been appointed to ascertain the causes of the explosion reported that the *Maine* had been destroyed by means of a submarine mine, but for lack of testimony it was impossible to say by whom it had been fired. Spain having, in a note

to the Great Powers, declined to give up her sovereign right over Cuba, the President, on April 19, delivered to the representatives of that country, the ultimatum of the United States, which required that Spain should withdraw from the island.

585. *Call for Volunteers.* The Spanish minister at Washington promptly demanded his passports, and the American minister at Madrid, General Stewart L. Woodford, was dismissed from Spain on April 21. This was virtually a declaration of war, though the formal declaration by Spain was not made till April 24. Active hostilities opened with the capture by American war ships of two Spanish vessels on April 22. The President issued a call for volunteers and 200,000 men were soon enlisted.

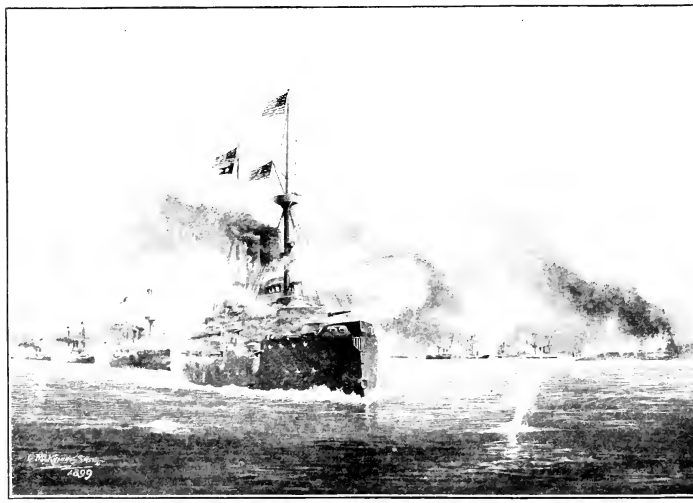


586. War with Spain. *Battle of Manila.* On April 27 the coast of the western half of Cuba having been brought into a state of strict blockade, the town of Matanzas was bombarded and its fortifications silenced. A few days afterward (May 1) the great naval victory at Manila occurred. The American fleet, commanded by Commodore Dewey, an officer who was as skillful as he was brave, pushed boldly into the bay about midnight, and at dawn arrived off the city. As soon as the fleet came in range, the guns in

Admiral Dewey

the batteries at Manila and Cavite (cah vee'tā) opened a heavy fire, in which the Spanish ships, lying under the protection of the forts at Cavite, hotly joined.

587. The American squadron returned the bombardment. Sailing in a line parallel to that of the Spanish fleet, the American vessels maintained a terrific fire, at once continuous



Battle of Manila Bay

and accurate, although submarine mines swarmed in the surrounding waters, and torpedo launches were darting out to send the American ships to the bottom. The *Reina Cristina*, moving forward to grapple with its antagonists at close quarters, was forced to withdraw, disabled and in flames, and soon sank. When the American fleet drew off for a few hours, in which to rest and refresh the sailors, several of the Spanish vessels were on fire. The fleet returned to the attack, and by noon the batteries in the forts at Cavite were silenced. The victory had been won without the loss of a man, with

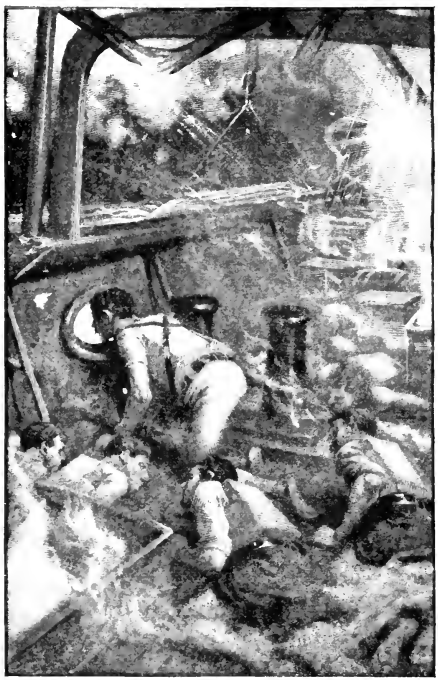
seven men only slightly wounded, and with no appreciable damage to the ships. Three Spanish vessels had sunk; seven had been burned. Such complete success was almost without a parallel in naval warfare. As a reward for his victory, Dewey received the thanks of Congress and was promoted to be rear admiral and later admiral.

588. *Cardenas.* Meanwhile a Spanish squadron, under the command of Admiral Cervera (thĕr vā'rah), had left Cape Verde Islands, and Acting Rear Admiral Sampson, in command of the Atlantic Squadron, set out to intercept it. A few days later (May 11), an engagement took place off Cardenas between the vessels enforcing the blockade and Spanish gunboats and the batteries on the shore. Ensign Worth Bagley, of North Carolina, with four sailors, perished by the explosion of a shell overhead. This young man was the first officer to fall in the war. On May 12 the American fleet under Sampson began a terrific bombardment of San Juan in Porto Rico, but nothing was accomplished.

589. *Arrival of Cervera at Santiago.* On May 19 the fleet of Cervera, by a circuitous route, stole into the winding harbor of Santiago de Cuba (sahn te ah'go da coo'bah), which was protected at its entrance by formidable shore batteries and numerous submarine mines. On May 13 Commodore Schley, who was in command of the Flying Squadron, left Hampton Roads and came to anchor off the mouth of the harbor, where, on May 30, Sampson joined him, and took control of the united fleets.

590. *Sinking of the "Merrimac."* On June 3 a remarkable attempt was made to close the mouth of the harbor to navigation by sinking the collier *Merrimac* in the channel. This perilous duty was confided to Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson, of Alabama, and seven men, who were chosen from among the hundreds who eagerly volun-

teered to go. A steam launch was to be dispatched to bring them off when the collier went down. The little party of gallant seamen, with their brave young leader, set out at dawn, and in the midst of a heavy fire from the Spanish batteries on shore, scuttled the *Merrimac*, but owing to damage to its rudder, caused by flying shells, which made it unmanageable, the vessel could not be sunk exactly across the channel. Hobson and his men drifted toward the shore, the launch being unable to come to their rescue, and were captured. They were afterward imprisoned at Santiago. Admiral Cervera sent a flag of truce to Sampson, with a letter, in which he extolled the bravery of the little band of heroes, and gave assurance that they would receive the most honorable treatment. On July 6 they were exchanged.



Sinking of the "Merrimac"

591. *Advance on Santiago by Land.* General Shafter, at the head of an army of about 18,000 men, set sail from Tampa, Florida, and by June 22 had landed at Daiquiri. General Joseph Wheeler, a former Confederate leader of distinction (§§ 484, 497), was the commander of the cavalry which accom-

panied the expedition. The advance toward Santiago began on the 24th. At Las Guasimas the Rough Riders, a volunteer cavalry organization composed largely of western cowboys, together with the first and tenth (negro) cavalry regiments of the regular army, fell into an ambush, but bore themselves with such firmness and courage that the enemy retired. Lieutenant Colonel Theodore Roosevelt of the Rough Riders on this occasion showed conspicuous bravery. By June 26 the cavalry under General Wheeler had marched as far as San Juan (sahn hoo ahn'), not far from Santiago. Two days later General Kent planted his siege and field guns on the heights overlooking that city. At San Juan on July 1 a brilliant charge was made by the American troops, the brunt of the attack falling on the unmounted cavalry of the Rough Riders and the first and tenth regiments. The Spaniards had now been driven back, trench by trench. The American forces sat down to await the submission of the city.

Joseph Wheeler

592. *The Battle.* On July 3 Sampson was summoned in the battleship *New York* to Siboney, to hold a conference with General Shafter, who wished to plan a joint naval and military attack on Santiago. While the head of the naval forces was thus several miles distant from the scene of the blockade the Spanish fleet darted out of the mouth of the harbor, and at first concentrated its fire on the *Brooklyn*, the flagship of Commodore Schley now, in the absence of Sampson, in command of the fleet.[1]

[1] Thus officially stated by Admiral Dewey in the decision of the Board that sat to inquire into Schley's conduct before and during the battle.

The Spanish vessels sought to escape by flight, but were so hotly pursued that by one o'clock all had been run ashore to avoid capture. Only one American sailor was killed; a few were wounded. The Spanish loss in killed and wounded was very heavy. Besides this Admiral Cervera and 1800 Spanish sailors were taken prisoners.

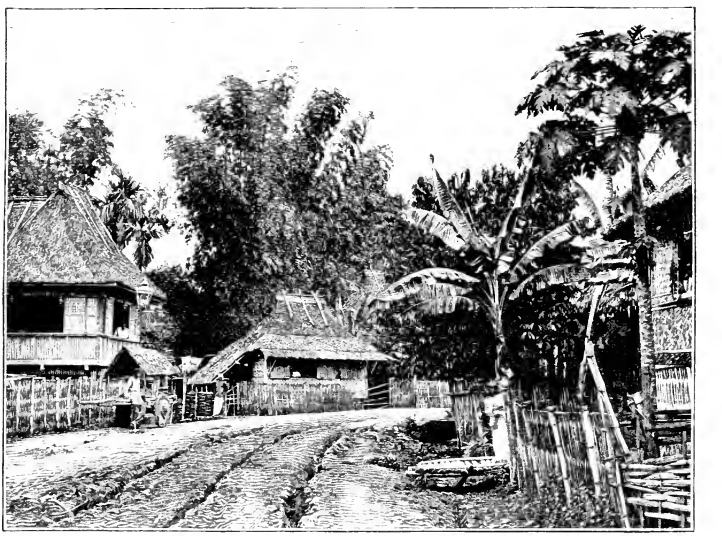
Rear Admiral Schley

593. *Surrender of Santiago.* General Toral, now in command of the Spanish forces at Santiago, having previously refused to surrender, on July 9, after consultation by cable with the Spanish government at Madrid, offered to evacuate the city, provided that he should be permitted to leave with all his army without molestation. Shafter demanded that his surrender should be unconditional. Toral firmly refused to yield, and on the next day the *Brooklyn*, *Texas*, and *Indiana*, anchoring off Aguadores, five miles away, opened a terrific bombardment on the city, which lay behind the hills out of sight of the gunners. No damage of importance was inflicted. On the 13th General Miles, the officer in command of all the forces of the United States, who had just arrived from Washington, accompanied by General Shafter held an interview with General Toral, in which terms for the surrender of the Spanish troops were agreed upon. On July 17 the city capitulated, the American flag was hoisted, and General Wood, who began the war as the colonel of the regiment of Rough Riders, was made the military governor. Nearly 25,000 soldiers laid down their arms and were sent back to Spain.

594. *An expedition against Porto Rico* was now planned. By July 25 General Miles, who had assumed direct charge,

had landed a large detachment of troops at Puerto de Guanica, about seventeen miles west of Ponce. On July 28 the town of Ponce surrendered. The American army was received by the people with a great ovation.

595. *Terms of Peace.* About this time the French ambassador at Washington conveyed a message to President



Scene in the Philippines

McKinley, which led to the inauguration of negotiations for peace. What were the terms which the United States would consider sufficiently satisfactory to justify a termination of hostilities? The reply was returned: (1) the withdrawal of Spanish troops from Cuba and the abandonment of the Spanish claim of sovereignty; (2) the evacuation of Porto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies and their cession to the United States; (3) the cession of one of the Ladrone Islands to the United States; (4) the retention by the United

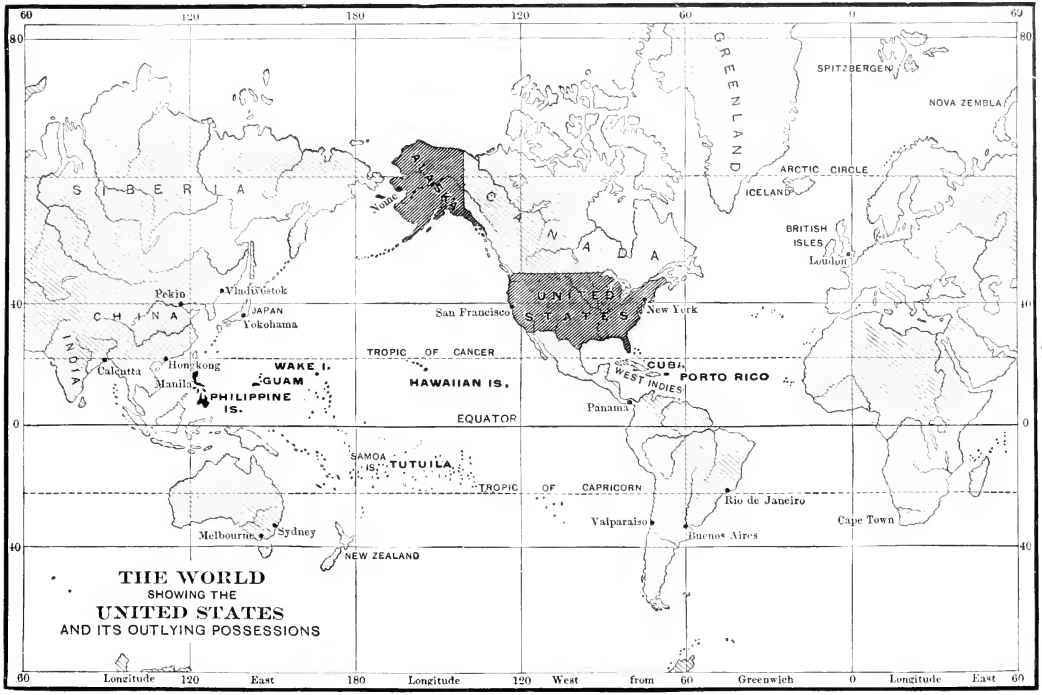
States of the city and bay of Manila until it was determined by the treaty of peace what should be the final disposition of the entire group of the Philippine Islands. The protocol was approved by the Spanish government on August 11, and on August 12 hostilities were declared to be suspended.

596. *Bombardment of Malate.* While these events were in progress a large body of American troops, under command of General Wesley Merritt, had been sent to Manila. On August 13, before receiving news of the protocol, Dewey opened a heavy bombardment, from his ships, of the defenses at Malate (mah lah'tā), under cover of which the forces on land made a determined assault on the trenches. The Spaniards were driven back in great confusion, and took refuge behind the walls. They soon surrendered.

597. *Cession of the Philippines.* The peace conference was held in Paris. The treaty was concluded December 10, and ratified by the Senate February 6, 1899. By its terms, in addition to the provisions of the protocol, Guam was selected as the island to be ceded to the United States. The Philippines also were ceded, and in return for the Philippines the United States agreed to pay Spain $20,000,000. On February 4 the Filipinos, led by Aguinaldo, unsuccessfully attacked the defenses of Manila. Now began an active campaign on the part of General Otis, the commander of the American army, to conquer the native troops, which was found to be a very difficult task, on account of the tropical climate and growth. By the beginning of 1900 most of the insurgents had surrendered.

Governor Taft

In 1899 President McKinley appointed a commission to report upon the condition of the Philippines. In 1900 a new


60
120
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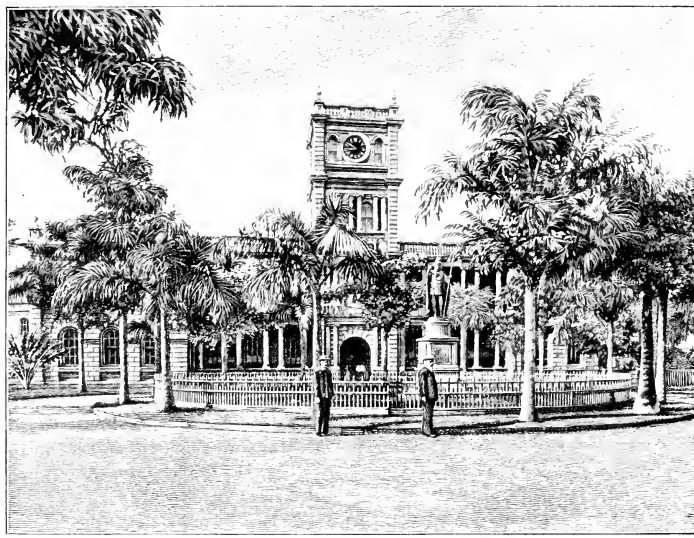
SIBERIA
CHINA
INDIA
Pekin
Vladivostok
JAPAN
Yokohama
Calcutta
Hongkong
Manila
WAKE I.
GUAM
PHILIPPINE IS.
Yukon
ALASKA
CANADA
GREENLAND
SPITZBERGEN
NOVA ZEMBLA
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ICELAND
BRITISH ISLES
London
UNITED STATES
San Francisco
New York
TROPIC OF CANCER
HAWAIIAN IS.
CUBA
WEST INDIES
PORTO RICO
Panama
EQUATOR
SAMOA IS.
TUTUILA
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
Cape Town
Melbourne
Sydney
NEW ZEALAND
THE WORLD
SHOWING THE
UNITED STATES
AND ITS OUTLYING POSSESSIONS
60 Longitude 120 East 180 Longitude 120 West from 60 Greenwich 0 Longitude East 60

commission of five members was appointed to control the government of the island and appoint the civil officers. William H. Taft, the president of this commission, was appointed civil governor of the islands.

598. Other Events. The other important events in the history of the administration of McKinley were: (1) the



Palace at Honolulu

passage of a joint resolution of Congress in July, 1898, under the terms of which the Hawaiian Islands were annexed to the United States; they now form a part of the American possessions, as an organized territory; (2) the passage of a new tariff law in the place of the Wilson Act, known from its author as the Dingley Act — this measure has increased the duties on many imported articles to a point that is without precedent in the history of the country; (3) the return of miners from Alaska with the news that there had been dis-

coveries of rich deposits of gold on the Klondike River, in Canada,—followed by many discoveries of gold in Alaska, especially at Cape Nome; (4) the great exposition held at Nashville in 1897, in celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of the State government of Tennessee; (5) the consolidation in 1897, into one great city, of the cities of New York and Brooklyn and some outlying territory — New York has thus become the second city in the world in population; (6) the Boxer movement in China in 1900, which compelled the United States, along with the European powers and Japan, to send troops there for the protection of its interests; (7) the acquisition by the United States of Tutuila (too too ee'lah) in the Samoan Islands by treaty with Germany and Great Britain (1900); (8) the more complete establishment of the gold standard by the Act of 1900.

599. Reëlection of McKinley. In the election of 1900 McKinley was again the nominee of the Republican party on the same platform of principles as in 1896. Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, was the nominee for the vice presidency. William J. Bryan and Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois, were the candidates of the Democratic party. McKinley was reëlected.

600. Death of McKinley. In the spring of 1901 a Pan-American Fair was thrown open to the public at Buffalo, New York. Among the many thousands who visited it was President McKinley, who came in September as the guest of the exposition. While holding a public reception he was approached by an anarchist as if to shake hands and was shot twice. At first the President's wounds were not thought to be mortal, but suddenly his injuries assumed a fatal character, and he died on September 14, deeply lamented by the people of the United States, and regretted by the entire civilized world. Mr. Roosevelt took the oath of office the same day.

Admission of New States, 1861–1903

601. West Virginia and Nevada. — Great American Desert. As already stated (§ 490) West Virginia and Nevada were admitted into the Union during the War of Secession, West Virginia in 1863 and Nevada in 1864. An impression prevailed for many years that a large part of Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Wyoming, Oklahoma, and Texas formed a great desert, popularly known as the Great American Desert, which was the resort only of hardy wild game. It was supposed to be unfitted for cultivation, and, therefore, for settlement. It was due chiefly to the explorations of Lieutenant John C. Frémont (§ 393) that this notion was dispelled as to the larger part of this region, and later examination has shown that the apparently most barren portions can be brought into a state of fertility by irrigation. In his third expedition, Frémont made his way across what are now the States of Nebraska and Utah.

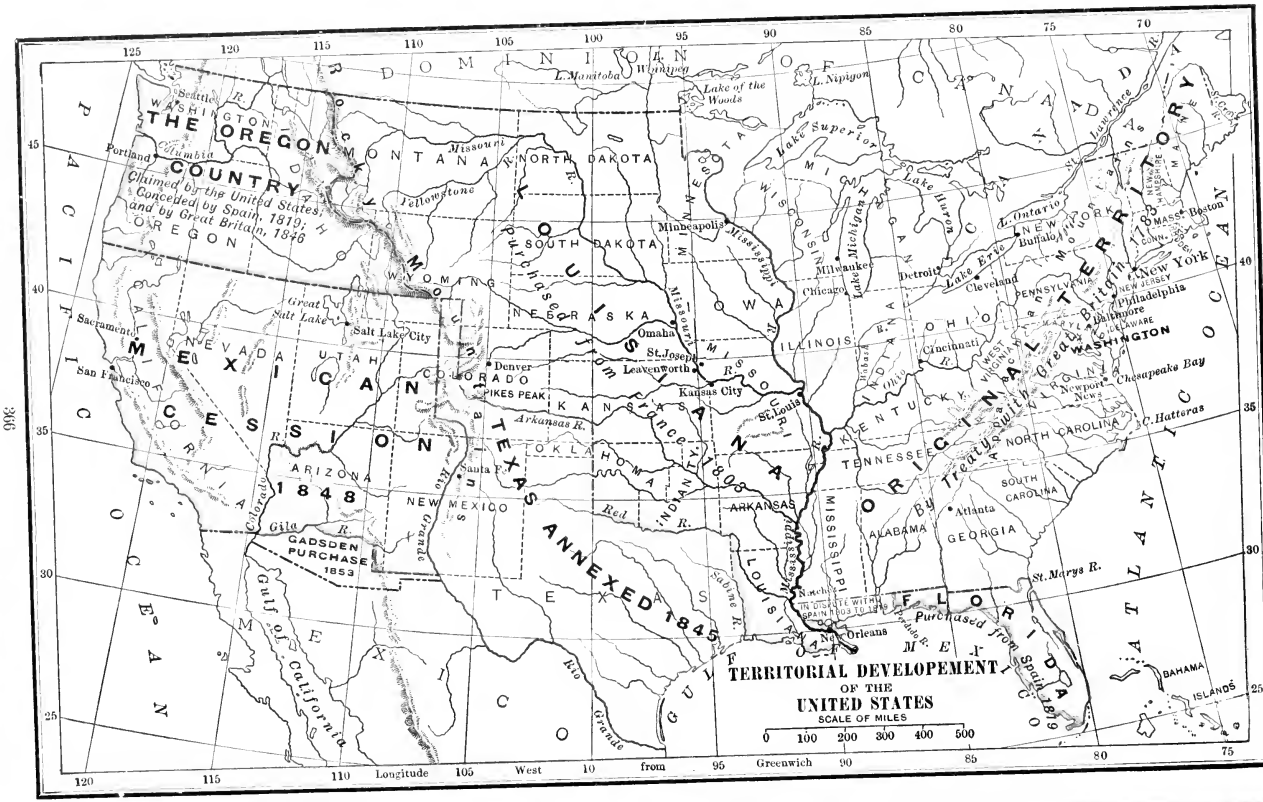
602. Nebraska was organized as a Territory under the Kansas-Nebraska Act (§ 408), but escaped the struggles that darkened the history of its sister Territory. When it entered the Union (1867) slavery had been abolished. It is one of the greatest of the grain-producing States. Its rapid growth in population, which increased eightfold in twenty years, was largely due to the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, which began at Omaha.

603. Pacific Railroads. In 1858 a great number of miners entered the country around Pikes Peak, and one of their rude and straggling camps came to be known as Denver, in honor of a governor of Kansas of that name. Before very long permanent settlers began to establish their homes in the same region. Denver rapidly grew into a town, with 1000 inhabitants. In order to bring in the supplies they needed, a daily

line of coaches was run to Leavenworth, in Kansas. Soon a pony express was carrying the mails between St. Joseph, Missouri, and San Francisco, and this was followed by a line of overland stages. From the time California was admitted as a State there had been a plan to unite it with the East by means of a railroad, but it was not until 1862 that work began. Two companies were chartered,—one to build a railroad from Omaha westward; the other to build from Sacramento eastward, until the two railroads should come together. The government aided the companies by large subsidies in bonds and land grants.

Pony Express

604. Colorado and Utah. The discovery of silver made Colorado a Territory in 1861, and the building of the Central Pacific made the Territory a State in 1876. As Colorado was admitted in the hundredth year after the Declaration of Independence, it is known as the "Centennial State." It continues to be one of the greatest silver-producing States of the Union. Utah, which was originally settled by the Mormons (§ 382), was not admitted until 1896, although it was entitled to admission long before by reason of its wealth and population. The obstruction lay in the institution of polygamy, and this was not removed until the people adopted a constitution expressly prohibiting polygamy. Utah, like Colorado, was greatly aided by the construction of the Pacific railways; and, like Colorado too, is largely dependent on its mineral interests.


THE OREGON COUNTRY
Claimed by the United States;
Conceded by Spain, 1819;
and by Great Britain, 1846
MEXICAN CESSION 1848
TEXAS ANNEXED 1845
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
LOUISIANA PURCHASE 1803
Purchased from France
ORIGINAL TERRITORY
By Treaty with Great Britain
Purchased from Spain 1819
TERRITORIAL DEVELOPEMENT
OF THE
UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
DOMINION OF CANADA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Seattle
Portland
Columbia R.
Sacramento
San Francisco
Great Salt Lake
Salt Lake City
Denver
PIKES PEAK
Santa Fe
Gila R.
Colorado R.
Rio Grande
Gulf of California
Missouri R.
Yellowstone
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Sabine R.
Mississippi R.
Minnesota R.
Lake Winnipeg
L. Manitoba
Lake of the Woods
L. Nipigon
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
L. Ontario
Lake Erie
St. Lawrence R.
Minneapolis
Milwaukee
Chicago
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Omaha
St. Joseph
Leavenworth
Kansas City
St. Louis
Cincinnati
Ohio R.
Wabash R.
Chesapeake Bay
Baltimore
Philadelphia
Boston
New York
Newport News
C. Hatteras
Atlanta
Nashville
New Orleans
Mobile
St. Marys R.
Bahama Islands
Washington
Pennsylvania
New Jersey
Delaware
Maryland
Massachusetts
Connecticut
Rhode Island
New Hampshire
Vermont
Maine
Kentucky
Tennessee
North Carolina
South Carolina
Georgia
Alabama
Mississippi
Louisiana
Arkansas
Missouri
Iowa
Illinois
Indiana
Michigan
Wisconsin
Minnesota
Dakota
Nebraska
Kansas
Oklahoma
Texas
Arizona
New Mexico
Nevada
Utah
Colorado
Wyoming
Montana
North Dakota
South Dakota
Oregon
Washington

605. The population of Idaho, Montana, and the Dakotas in 1860 did not exceed 5000. Ten years later the discovery of the precious metals at different points in this region had brought in 50,000 settlers, the larger number of whom were engaged in mining. It was not until the Northern Pacific Railroad was built that the permanent prosperity of the scattered communities was assured. The first earth was dug for it in 1870, and as the line was constructed westward, emigrants took advantage of it to lay off farms and erect cities in its vicinity. In 1889 the population of Dakota had increased to 500,000. In that year it was divided and admitted to the Union as two States, known as North Dakota and South Dakota. Montana also entered in 1889, and Idaho and Wyoming in 1890.

606. Vast regions in these States, which were formerly the pasture ground of countless buffalo and antelope, have become the ranges of innumerable herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. The largest wheat farms in the world are to be found here. The annual production of wheat in the two Dakotas often rises to over 100,000,000 bushels, and of corn in South Dakota to 35,000,000 bushels. The production of the precious metals in South Dakota is enormous, and this is also the case in the States of Montana, Idaho, and Wyoming.

607. Washington, which was admitted as a State in 1889, owed its first settlement to people who had been at first attracted to Oregon by the fine climate and fertile farming lands. The rush of population into California, after the discovery of gold, brought across the continent many emigrants, who finally made their homes in the region now included in Washington. The only Territories now included in the main part of the United States are Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, which was separated from Indian Territory, and made a Territory in 1890, and Indian Territory.

Progress of the Nation to 1900

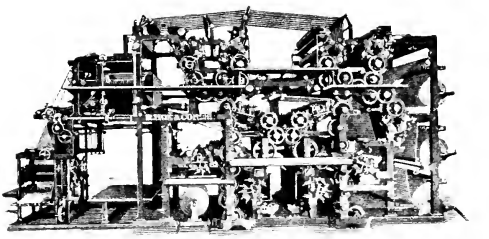
608. Progress of the United States. *Richest Country in the World.* We have from time to time dwelt upon the growth of the United States in wealth and population during the different periods in its history. In conclusion, a brief review of a few recent aspects of that growth will not be out of place. In the interval of forty years between 1860 and 1900, the area of the United States has increased nearly 1,000,000 square miles, and the population has increased two and a half fold; the length of the railways has increased seven fold; the number of tons of pig iron fifteen fold; the value of all manufactured products seven fold. The production of grain has nearly trebled and of cotton more than doubled in the same interval. The volume of exports has increased in value to nearly $1,500,000,000 and that of the imports to $900,000,000. A comprehensive idea of the vast development of the country covered by the United States from the foundation of the first colony may be obtained from the statement that in three hundred years its wealth has grown to be more than one sixth of that of the entire world. The United States is now the richest community on the globe, although the wealth of Great Britain is greater in proportion to the number of its inhabitants.

609. *National Income.* The gross receipts of the United States in 1900 were nearly $2,000,000,000, and the expenditures $1,000,000,000. In 1790 there were only 75 post offices in the United States; now there are over 75,000. The American post-office department handles more mail matter than all the post-office departments of Europe taken together.

610. *Educational and Literary Advance.* In the period of the Revolution there were not more than 37 newspapers issued; there are now more than 20,000 periodicals of all kinds. The public libraries of the United States are among

the largest and finest in the world. There are now nearly five hundred colleges, while the average annual attendance in the public schools exceeds 15,000,000 pupils.

611. *American Inventions.* All that inventive genius could do to cheapen production, to promote comfort, to preserve life and quicken transportation, has been done in the United States. The printing press, the sewing machine, the typewriter, the telephone, the phonograph, the agricultural reaper and mower, the electric and the cable car, the air brake, the house elevator, the breech-loading gun, — such are a few of the marvelous American contrivances for the advancement of the welfare of mankind.



Modern Newspaper Printing Press

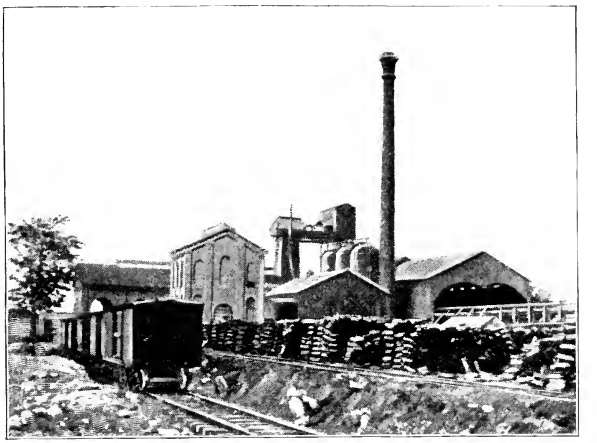
612. Material Progress of the South. *Agriculture.* In the enormous progress which the United States is making, the South is playing, in some particulars, the leading part. At the end of the War of Secession its whole system, social and industrial, was overthrown. During the twelve years succeeding the close of hostilities at Appomattox, the Southern States were able to advance but little, owing to the disorder and robbery attending Reconstruction. It was not until the administration of Hayes began that these States can be said to have had control of their own affairs. Although at the beginning of the brief period that has elapsed since then, the South, overwhelmed with debt, possessed little banking capital and few manufacturing plants, with a laboring population disorganized, and all foreign immigration diverted from its borders, yet the progress of that part of the Union has been more

rapid than that of any other division. It has made enormous gains in the value of its farm products. It produces nearly all the cotton, rice, sugar and molasses, and three fourths of the tobacco raised in the United States. In spite of the fluctuations in the price of cotton, the annual value of the agricultural products of the South is now about $1,000,000,000. This includes the value of the fruits and vegetables, which now form so large a part of the shipments from all the Southern ports on the Atlantic, — a new industry, which is destined to become a source of vast wealth to the Southern States.

613. *The advance in manufactures* has been more remarkable even than in agriculture. In 1900 the capital invested in that form of production amounted to nearly $1,500,000,000, which was five times its value in 1880. In 1880 there were 180 mills, 700,000 spindles, and 15,000 looms engaged in cotton manufacture. By 1900 the number of mills had increased to over 400, the spindles to nearly 5,000,000, and the looms to 110,000. In 1900 the capital invested in cotton manufactures was $150,000,000 which was six and a half times the amount invested in 1880. Already the Southern States monopolize the manufacture of coarse cotton, and are making steady progress in obtaining a share in the manufacture of finer goods. Producing about 80% of the supply of the raw cotton of the world (10,000,000 bales in 1900, as compared with 5,761,000 in 1880), with cheap coal in abundance, and an unsurpassed water power not far from the fields, it would be safe to predict that in the course of the next fifty years the South will become the leading manufacturer of cotton on the globe.

614. *In former days* it was a serious problem in the Southern States how to get rid of cottonseed at the least expense. The gins were frequently built over streams, in order that the running water might carry off the seed without further trouble. The first mill for compressing oil from cottonseed was erected

in Natchez, Mississippi, in 1834, but the industry did not acquire commercial importance till after the War of Secession. In 1900 there were over 350 mills engaged in the extraction of cottonseed oil, using 2,500,000 tons of cottonseed, from which nearly $50,000,000 worth of products were extracted. The cake made of the compressed seed after the removal of the hulls and refuse cotton fiber, is shipped to every country in



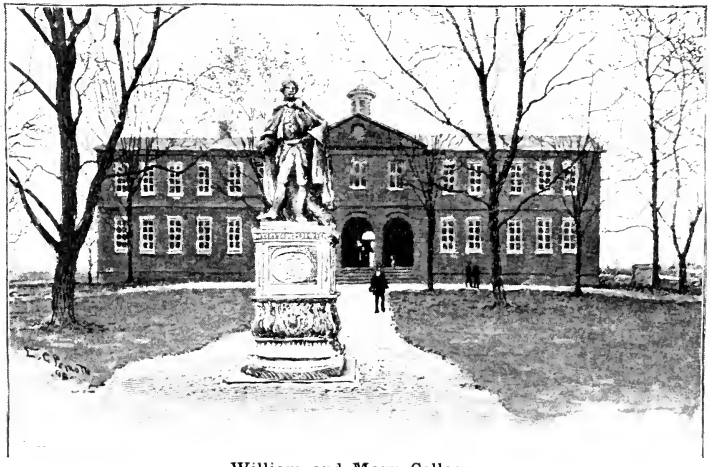
Iron Works, Alabama

Europe as food for live stock, and adds largely to the income derived from cotton culture. The refuse cotton fiber and the hulls are also sold for use in various ways.

615. *The development of the iron industry* in the South is as remarkable as that of the cotton. So vast is the abundance of fuel, that West Virginia alone possesses nearly twice as great a coal area as Great Britain. In Alabama there is an inexhaustible supply of iron ore, in the closest proximity to coking coal and limestone. This iron is finding a market, not only in America, but also in Asia and Europe. The iron and

steel production of the Southern States, as a whole, increased from 530,000 tons in 1880 to over 3,000,000 in 1900. The region where this industry is carried on to the best advantage extends from northern Virginia, south to central Alabama.

616. *Exports, Railroads, and Shipbuilding.* The value of exports from ports, owing in part to the diversion of western traffic from New York, Boston, and Philadelphia to them,



William and Mary College

was about $500,000,000 in 1900, which was an increase of $100,000,000 in two years. The increase in the extent of new railroads since 1880 has been 35,000 miles. Already the South possesses in the shipbuilding yards at Newport News the largest of the kind in the United States, and among the largest in the world. Its supply of timber for shipbuilding, as well as for other purposes, is enormous.

617. Intellectual Progress of the South. *Schools and Colleges.* In the midst of this great industrial progress, the Southern States have not neglected the moral and intellectual welfare of

their people. The public school funds have increased rapidly, the number of colleges and universities has steadily grown, while the standards of instruction have been as constantly rising. The tendency of the increasing manufacturing interests of the South is to stimulate the growth of cities, which are rapidly becoming the centers of a productive literary life.

618. *Southern Writers.* Since the deaths of Hawthorne, Emerson, Longfellow, Bryant, and Lowell, the Northern States have declined in literary fertility of a high order; the Southern have grown. Before the War of Secession the latter States were prominent in political writings alone. They now possess a circle of writers of fiction, who, in truth to nature, purity of sentiment, searching humor and excellence of style, are unsurpassed by any of their contemporaries who have won fame in the same field. The most famous are George W. Cable, of Louisiana, Thomas Nelson Page, of Virginia, Miss Murfree, of Tennessee, Joel Chandler Harris, of Georgia, and James Lane Allen, of Kentucky. In historical research Virginia and South Carolina have been especially active, and in Edward McCrady, William Wirt Henry, Kate Mason Rowland, Lyon G. Tyler, and Alexander Brown claim writers who have made notable contributions to our knowledge of American Colonial and Revolutionary events and their causes.

619. *The progress of the South* in all the elements of material, intellectual, and moral greatness, is the progress of the United States. In patriotic devotion, and in national aspirations for the future, that part of our country is now as much a part of the Union as it has always been in its geographical lines. The growing identity of practical interests, and the increasing rapidity of communication between the States, is fast welding North and South, East and West, into one great community, in which the points of substantial difference will become less marked each year that passes.

ANALYSIS OF PERIOD IX

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—REUNION.

- I. Hayes's Administration, 1877-1881.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Railroad Strikes.
    2. Jetties in Mississippi R.
    3. Mechanical Inventions.
  - 2. Financial Affairs.
    1. Remonetization of Silver.
    2. Specie Payments Resumed.
    3. Refunding of Public Debt.
- II. Garfield and Arthur's Administration, 1881-1885.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Assassination of Garfield.
    2. Civil Service Act passed.
    3. Reduction of Postage.
    4. Southern Expositions.
- III. Cleveland's First Administration, 1885-1889.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Labor Troubles.
    2. Interstate Commission.
    3. Chinese Exclusion.
    4. Succession to Presidency.
    5. Surplus Revenue.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Canadian Fisheries.
    2. Dispute about Samoa.
- IV. Harrison's Administration, 1889-1893.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. McKinley Tariff Act.
    2. Business Depression.
    3. Mafia suppressed.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. International Copyright.
    2. Bering Sea Dispute settled.
    3. Controversy with Chile.
- V. Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893-1897.
  - 1. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Panic of 1893.
    2. Wilson Tariff Act passed.
    3. World's Columbian Fair.
    4. Navy enlarged.
  - 2. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Venezuelan Controversy.
    2. Revolution in Hawaii.
    3. Cuban Difficulties.
- VI. McKinley's Administration, 1897-1901.
  - 1. War with Spain, Naval.
    1. Coast of Cuba blockaded.
    2. Battle of Manila.
    3. Spanish Fleet enters Santiago.
    4. Bombardment of San Juan.
    5. Flying Squadron off Santiago.
    6. Battle of Santiago.
  - 2. War with Spain, Military.
    1. Army lands at Daiquiri.
    2. Engagements before Santiago.
    3. Santiago surrenders.
    4. Expedition against Porto Rico.
    5. Treaty of Peace.
  - 3. Foreign Affairs.
    1. Acquisition of Philippines.
    2. Hawaiian I. annexed.
    3. Expedition against China.
  - 4. Domestic Affairs.
    1. Filipino Uprising.
    2. Dingley Tariff Act passed.
    3. Klondike Gold Discoveries.
    4. Nashville Exposition.
    5. Gold Standard established.
    6. Assassination of McKinley.
- VII. New States admitted, 1861-1903.
  1. West Virginia.
  2. Nevada.
  3. Nebraska.
  4. Colorado.
  5. North Dakota.
  6. South Dakota.
  7. Washington.
  8. Montana.
  9. Idaho.
  10. Wyoming.
  11. Utah.
- VIII. Progress of the Nation to 1900.
  1. Progress in General.
  2. Progress of the South.

Roosevelt's[1] Administration, 1901

620. Isthmian Canal. In November, 1901, a treaty between Great Britain and United States was signed which revoked the Clayton-Bulwer treaty (§ 405). By the terms of the new convention, the right of the United States to construct the Isthmian Canal, and to manage it, and protect it from lawlessness, is fully recognized, but all nations are granted equal freedom, both in war and in peace, in the use of the canal. An Isthmian Canal Commission reported in favor of the Nicaragua route, but on the offer by the Panama Canal Company to sell its franchises and property to the United States for $40,000,000, the Commission made a second report in favor of the Panama route, and a bill was passed by Congress authorizing the President to make the purchase, and also to acquire from Colombia certain territorial rights along the line of the new water way. In 1903 a

Theodore Roosevelt

[1] Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York City, October 27, 1858. He is sprung from Dutch and Scotch-Irish stock. His mother was a native of Georgia, being descended from Archibald Bulloch, the first Revolutionary governor of Georgia. Roosevelt was a member of the New York Assembly, 1882–1884, was appointed in 1889 a member of the United States Civil Service Commission, of which body he was made president. In 1895 he became president of the New York Police Commissioners. This position he resigned on his appointment as Assistant Secretary of the Navy. When war broke out with Spain he became lieutenant colonel of the Rough Riders, a regiment composed chiefly of western cowboys and hunters. In 1898 Roosevelt was elected governor of New York, and in 1900 Vice President of the United States.

treaty with Colombia was signed securing to the United States practically permanent control of a six-mile strip across the Isthmus of Panama on the payment of $10,000,000 and an annual rental of $250,000.

621. Republic of Cuba. In 1901, Cuba, which was still occupied by an American army, adopted a Constitution agreeable to the conditions laid down by the United States. On May 20, 1902, the United States troops were withdrawn, and Cuba assumed control of its own government. The new government bound itself to continue the prevailing American regulations for the prevention of epidemic diseases and the enforcement of thorough sanitation in the cities. In March, 1903, the Senate of the United States ratified a reciprocity treaty with Cuba, subject to approval by Congress before it becomes operative.

622. Philippine Islands. In July, 1902, Congress passed a bill establishing a plan of civil government for the Philippines. This bill provided for a legislature of two houses, one consisting of the Philippine Commission (§ 597) and the other of an assembly elected by the Filipinos. The civil governor, vice governor, members of the Philippine Commission, and heads of executive departments are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate.

623. Anthracite Strike. It was the custom of the miners in most of the bituminous coal regions, and the owners of the mines, by their representatives, to meet annually, and adopt for a year a general scale of wages. The miners in the anthracite regions were anxious to make a similar arrangement, but the owners of the mines declined to unite with them. The miners then demanded an advance in wages and a reduction in the hours of work. Both demands were refused, and in May, 1902, there began a strike which involved 147,000 men and lasted five months, practically closing the mines. So great

was the distress from a coal famine which followed that President Roosevelt came forward with the suggestion that the differences should be submitted to the arbitration of a commission, to be appointed by him. This plan of settlement was accepted by all parties, and work was resumed late in October. The Commission, after a careful investigation, reported in March, 1903, an award to the miners of a portion of their demands.

624. Irrigation. In 1902 Congress passed a law which allowed the greater part of the proceeds from the sales of public lands in certain States and Territories in the West to be used for the reclamation of their arid lands. The States and Territories in which this work will be done are Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. It is thought that about 60,000,000 acres will by this means be added to the arable soil of the United States.

625. Wireless Telegraphy. For several years wireless telegraphy has been successfully used for short distances, but in December, 1901, Marconi, the Italian scientist, was able to send a message across the Atlantic by this means. Soon afterwards he erected two stations in America, one on Cape Breton Island, the other at Cape Cod. In November, 1902, his first experiment of a transoceanic message was successfully repeated. Many of the great international steamship lines are now equipped with instruments for wireless telegraphy, and have no difficulty in keeping up at sea communication with the land and each other, thus greatly diminishing the perils of an ocean voyage.

626. Department of Commerce and Labor. — An act of Congress passed in February, 1903, added to the President's cabinet a Secretary of Commerce and Labor who presides over the Department of Commerce and Labor. The duty of this De-

partment is "to foster, promote, and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, the labor interests and the transportation facilities of the United States." The work of the Department is divided among a number of bureaus, many of which were transferred to it from other departments. Among these is the Census Office, transferred from the Department of the Interior. A Bureau of Corporations was created with authority to make investigations into the organization, conduct, and management of the business of any corporations, except railroads, engaged in commerce among the several States and with foreign nations.

APPENDIX

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE — 1776

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all hav-

ing in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined, with others, to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire

Josiah Bartlett,
Wm. Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay

Saml. Adams,
John Adams,
Robt. Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island

Step. Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut

Roger Sherman,
Sam'el Huntington,
Wm. Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New York

Wm. Floyd,
Phil. Livingston,
Frans. Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

New Jersey

Richd. Stockton,
Jno. Witherspoon,
Fras. Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abra. Clark.

Pennsylvania

Robt. Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benja. Franklin,
John Morton,
Geo. Clymer,
Jas. Smith,
Geo. Taylor,
James Wilson,
Geo. Ross.

Delaware

Cæsar Rodney,
Geo. Read,
Tho. M'Kean.

Maryland

Samuel Chase,
Wm. Paca,
Thos. Stone,
Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

Virginia

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Th Jefferson,
Benja. Harrison,
Thos. Nelson, jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

North Carolina

Wm. Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

South Carolina

Edward Rutledge,
Thos. Heyward, Junr.,
Thomas Lynch, Junr.,
Arthur Middleton.

Georgia

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
Geo. Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES—1787[1]

WE the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. 1 The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2 No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3 Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons.[2] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4 When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5 The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. 1 The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

[1] This reprint of the Constitution exactly follows the text of that in the Department of State at Washington, save in the spelling of a few words.

[2] The last half of this sentence was superseded by the 13th and 14th Amendments. (See p. 16 following.)

2 Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3 No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4 The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5 The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6 The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7 Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. 1 The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2 The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. 1 Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2 Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3 Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4 Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. 1 The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2 No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. 1 All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2 Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3 Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. 1 The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2 To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3 To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4 To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5 To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6 To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7 To establish post offices and post roads;

8 To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9 To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10 To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

11 To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12 To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13 To provide and maintain a navy;

14 To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15 To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

16 To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17 To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,[1] and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and

18 To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. 1 The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.[2]

2 The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3 No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4 No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5 No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6 No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7 No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the

[1] The District of Columbia, which comes under these regulations, had not then been erected.

[2] A temporary clause, no longer in force. See also Article V, p. 12 following.

receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8 No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION 10.[1] 1 No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2 No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3 No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. 1 The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows

2 Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate, shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice.

[1] See also the 10th, 13th, 14th and 15th Amendments, pp. 15, 16 following.

In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.[1]

3 The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4 No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5 In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6 The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7 Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. 1 The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2 He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3 The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on

[1] This paragraph superseded by the 12th Amendment, p. 15 following.

extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. 1 The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State;[1] — between citizens of different States, — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

2 In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3 The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. 1 Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2 The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And

[1] See the 11th Amendment, p. 15 following.

the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. 1 The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2 A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3 No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.[1]

SECTION 3. 1 New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2 The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

1 All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2 This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

[1] See the 13th Amendment, p. 16 following.

3 The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States, and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution ; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names,

Go: Washington —
Presidt. and Deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

Massachusetts

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

Connecticut

Wm. Saml. Johnson
Roger Sherman

New York

Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey

Wil: Livingston
David Brearley
Wm. Paterson
Jona: Dayton

Pennsylvania

B. Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt. Morris
Geo. Clymer
Thos. Fitzsimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouv Morris

Delaware

Geo: Read
Gunning Bedford Jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom

Maryland

James McHenry
Dan of St. Thos Jenifer
Danl. Carroll

Virginia

John Blair —
James Madison Jr.

North Carolina

Wm. Blount
Richd. Dobbs Spaight
Hu Williamson

South Carolina

J. Rutledge,
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney
Pierce Butler.

Georgia

William Few
Abr Baldwin

Attest William Jackson Secretary.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several States pursuant to the fifth article of the original Constitution.

ARTICLE I[1]

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

[1] The first ten Amendments were adopted in 1791.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI[1]

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII[2]

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

[1] Adopted in 1798.

[2] Adopted in 1804.

ARTICLE XIII[1]

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV[2]

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV[3]

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

[1] Adopted in 1865. [2] Adopted in 1868. [3] Adopted in 1870.

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